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An Analysis of Some Aspects of Federal Support of Education in the United States and Canada

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AN ANALYSIS OF SOME ASPECTS
OF FEDERAL SUPPORT OF EDUCATION
IN THE UNITED STATES AND CANADA

by

Samuel J. Chidekel

A Dissertation Submitted to the Faculty of the Graduate School
of Loyola University in Partial Fulfillment of
the Requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Education

June

1961

LIFE

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

A. Purpose of the Study

This investigation is concerned with a review of federal aid in the United States and Canada and how it has affected the educational program of these two countries. It seeks to summarize the expenditures of these countries to the states and provinces, school districts, schools, and students. A comparison of the two programs will be made, and in vealuating these programs recommendations will ensue.

The study developed from a deep seated interest in the questions arising from the problem of federal support of education. In the attempt to solve some of the controversial issues it is apparent that one method of attack is to find what the experiences of another country with similar school organizations, culture, and background is doing in this regard.

Canada was chosen for this comparison. "Expenditures on public education in 1954 represented 2.7 per cent of the gross national product in that year. The similar figure in the United States for the same year was 2.4 per cent."¹ Canada is divided into provinces which have school district organization with

¹Moffatt, H. P. Educational Finance in Canada (Toronto, 1957), p. 26.

the provinces responsible for education and the local district operating the schools. This is the same as in the United States.

The problem of federal aid to education in the United States has been studied by governmental commissions, educational organizations, business interests, and certain aspects have been the subject of several dissertations. Federal aid to education in Canada has been studied by some educational organizations, government statistics have been compiled, and a dissertation is being formulated on its history. No study has been located which gives insight into federal aid for education through a comparison of United States and Canadian federal governments efforts.

The following seven phases of federal support of education in the United States and Canada are to be considered:

1. A review of United States aid to education.
2. A review of Canadian aid to education.
3. The present status of United States aid to education.
4. The present status of Canadian aid to education.
5. A comparison of United States and Canadian government aid to education.
6. An evaluation of the trends in United States and Canadian federal aid programs as indicated by governmental recommendations.
7. The contributions that may be made to the federal aid program of each country through the experience that may be applied from one to the other.

B. Definition of Terms

In a study of this nature there are several terms which must be considered and therefore need clarification. A term repeatedly used is that of a

foundation program. Another but less used term, yet necessary for financial understanding of these support programs, is that of gross national product.

A foundation program is one in which students receive an education that meets the requirements necessary for an acceptable program. Naturally, a foundation program may vary according to the standards which precedence, motivation, and goals may determine. Nevertheless, state and private school recognition and accrediting agencies do set basic requirements, and these essentials may be accepted as a foundation program.

Gross national product is the gross value of all the goods and services produced by business enterprises, including farmers, professional persons, and other self-employed individuals and by government agencies. In 1931 Canada spent \$1.40 of each million dollars of the gross national product for each child educated. In 1954 the corresponding figure was eighty-one cents.²

C. Review of the Related Literature

There are various sources available for information on federal aid to education in the United States and Canada. These may be listed as governmental reports given by an advisory commission to a President in the United States or made by the Bureau of Statistics in Canada. A second valuable source of related materials is that made by or made for a Congressional committee in the United States. A third source of information is the annual reports and the laws by which various departments operate and determine what federal aid for education may be expended. Lastly, there are the books, dissertations and

²Ibid., p. 26.

pamphlets that have been written on federal aid by private sources.

The National Advisory Committee on Education was appointed by President Hoover in 1929. In 1931, the committee published a report in two parts titled Federal Relations to Education.³ Some of the recommendations included: (1) There are national responsibilities for education which only the Federal Government can adequately meet. This consists of (a) fostering the education of all people without regard to state jurisdiction, (b) the children of the people in all the states are neither more nor less the potential units of popular sovereignty when regarded as potential citizens of the United States and of the various states, (c) the collective citizenship of the United States is not different from the aggregate citizenship of all the States, and (d) the preservation of the spirit and the method of the American democratic civilization is an obligation of all the people as expressed both through the Federal Government and the State Governments; (2) Although the educational obligations of each of the three levels of American Government - federal, state and local - are equally full and binding, these obligations may and ought, in fact, to be discharged by each of these governments in a somewhat different manner. Together the three levels of government should supplement, complement, and reinforce each other in the achievement of the common national purpose; (3) It is particularly unwise to centralize in the Federal Government the power of determining the social purposes to be served by educational institutions or of establishing the techniques of educational procedure; (4)

³Federal Relations to Education: Part I, Committee Findings and Recommendations: A Report by the National Advisory Committee on Education (Washington, 1931), pp. 27-36.

The American people are justified in using their federal tax system to give financial aid to education in the States, provided they do this in a manner that does not delegate to the Federal Government any control of the special purposes and specific processes of education; (5) If Federally collected tax money is used to give financial aid to the States, it should be given to aid education as a whole and not as special grants for the stimulation of particular types of training; (6) The matching of federal money grants, with state or local funds whether their use is for general or special educational purposes is a policy not to be favored in the field of education; (7) The Federal Government should render large intellectual assistance to the States in matters of education through scientific research and the collection and dissemination of reliable information; and (8) The changes recommended should include provision for gradual transition.

The United States Advisory Committee on Education⁴ was appointed by President Roosevelt in 1936 and a report was published in 1938. One of the proposals stated that the best source of revenue to adjust the unequal financial abilities of the states is the Federal Income Tax. Therefore, this should be used to assist the support of education. Other recommendations included: (1) General federal aid to elementary and secondary education (2) Aid for the improved preparation of teachers; (3) Aid for district organization and the improved housing of schools; (4) Aid for the improved administration of state departments of education; (5) Educational services for adults; (6) Rural library services; and (7) Cooperative educational research, planning

⁴Report of the Committee; A Report by the United States Advisory Committee on Education (Washington, 1938), pp. 197-219.

and leadership.

The National Resources Planning Board⁵ was formed in 1939 by President Roosevelt. In 1943 the Board issued a report on a Postwar Plan and Program. The board said that most of the increases in expenditures for education in the postwar period must be financed by federal funds. Federal funds should be used primarily to improve educational opportunity in states where the need is greatest.

President Truman established the President's Commission on Higher Education⁶ in 1946. The recommendations of The Commission were that the Federal Government should recognize the desirability for granting financial aid to students in higher education. This assistance should be in the form of grants-in-aid and graduate fellowships, being made available to all eligible students. A national program for undergraduate, non veteran students in the form of grants-in-aid should be made available to twenty per cent of the students. The basis for selecting these students would be on need and personal abilities and interests.

The Commission on Organization of the Executive Branch of the Government⁷ was formed in 1947, headed by former President Herbert Hoover. Various task

⁵Postwar Plan and Program: A Report by the National Planning Board (Washington, 1943), cited in Quattlebaum, Federal Educational Policies, Programs and Proposals, pp. 73-74.

⁶Report of the Commission: A Report by the President's Commission on Higher Education (Washington, 1946), cited in Quattlebaum, Federal Educational Policies, Programs and Proposals, pp. 74-75.

⁷"Report on Social Security and Education" and "Report on Public Welfare:" A Report by the (Hoover) Commission on Organization of the Executive Branch of the Government, 1947 (Washington, 1947) cited in Quattlebaum, Federal Educational Policies, Programs and Proposals, pp. 75-77.

forces cooperated in this study. Another reference, The Federal Government and Education⁸ includes the original and complete study of education for the Hoover Commission task force on public welfare. The Commission's "Report on Social Security and Education" showed the overlapping and independent promotions in elementary and secondary curricula in highly specialized fields while neglecting general curricular needs. Direct federal aid to local schools in curriculum development and in providing school lunches has by-passed state departments of education and also has shown a lack of sufficient coordination between educational and nutritional aspects in the school lunch program.

In grants-in-aid for research through colleges and universities in the natural and physical sciences there are nine separate federal departments and agencies. The Commission recommended that these projects continue under their present arrangement and not through the United States Office of Education.

The task force report on "Public Welfare" stated that control of and responsibility for education should continue to be a state and local function. However, federal financial assistance and leadership of a noncoercive nature are often desirable. Grants-in-aid or other fiscal assistance for education through local channels should be as general as possible, but there must be some method for determining that funds are used for the purposes intended. The task force also states that since the United States Office of Education should be a source for professional educational service to all governmental agencies involved in educational matters, the Office should be better equipped to

⁸Hollis Patridge Allen, The Federal Government and Education (New York, 1950).

perform its appropriate functions. Later reports of The Commission issued in 1955 included recommendations affecting schools in regard to distribution of surplus property as used in school lunchrooms and elsewhere.

A committee who found itself in opposition to federal aid was the Commission on Intergovernmental Relations.⁹ President Eisenhower directed this committee to study the relationship of the Federal Government to the states and their political subdivisions. Meyer Kestnbaum served as chairman, fifteen members were appointed by President Eisenhower, five members were appointed by the President of the Senate, and five members were appointed by the Speaker of the House. The Commission felt that state and local control of education was a fine American heritage, that the states have consistently contributed more funds to education even the less wealthy ones, and that the responsibility for public education should remain with the states. However, since there is a national interest for having our citizens educated, in cases where one or more states are found to be unable to meet their educational needs, some appropriate way of the Federal Government helping the states should be found. This must be done without interference in educational processes by the Federal Government. They recommend that any aid given in this manner must be on a temporary basis and for the construction of school facilities.

In regard to the school lunch program although the Commission appreciates the value of this service to children, it recommends that the states expand their lunch programs assuming full responsibility for them and reducing and

⁹Report of the Commission: A Report by the Commission on Intergovernmental Relations (Washington, 1955), cited in Quattlebaum, Federal Educational Policies, Programs and Proposals, pp. 81-83.

eliminating cash grants from the Federal Government. Commodity donations from surplus supplies may continue to be given by the National Government as long as they are in evidence. The Commission recommended that the subsidizing of vocational education with grants-in-aid should be restricted to subjects that clearly evidence their importance to the national interest. They further felt that those which do not meet these criteria should be deprived of federal aid within a reasonable amount of time. The Commission approved grants for school construction in federally affected areas.

The White House Conference on Education in 1955 recommended that federal aid should not be allowed to deter the states from doing their best in education and that federal funds need must be shown. The 1956 President's Committee beyond the High School recommended that direct financial assistance to states should be reviewed periodically and be stopped immediately when it is no longer clearly needed.

The Rockefeller Brothers Fund promoted a study on education in which fifteen prominent persons from various fields of American life issued a report entitled "The Pursuit of Excellence - Education and the Future of America." This report is commonly referred to as the Rockefeller Report on Education. Financing was named in this report as the one basic problem in education. In line with this was the statement that we cannot hope to preserve our national life on the level to which we subscribe by merely taking stop-gap measures to meet our immediate needs. Rather we must plan and build for the future of education. Federal action is needed to solve many educational problems. Federal aid to education is the line of progress we must follow. Our country must move ahead and hope that men of vision will guide

policies for Federal aid to education.

In Canada no national ministry of education is found, but there are numerous agencies and departments of the Federal Government which have a responsibility for operations in the area of education, training, and cultural activities. There are thirteen divisions which operate institutions of formal education or which provide service or support to education or training. All these divisions operate under an act of legislative authority, and each publishes an annual report. According to Miller¹⁰ Dominion Government, which is equivalent to our Federal Government, must become more closely associated with the provinces in meeting educational responsibilities for a successful democracy. He gives a factual presentation of data which gives the background and present status of the relationship of the Dominion Government to education. He indicates that in meeting responsibilities within its own jurisdiction it has been unable to avoid activities relevant to education and has provided financial cooperation to the provinces which has been proven acceptable.

In a comparison of financial aid to education in the United States and Canada Buck¹¹ finds a similarity between the way both countries have met the problem. He finds that since the turn of the century there has been a growing disparity between the way the states and provinces of each country have been able to meet their financial problems. Whereas some states and provinces have been able to maintain a high level of service at fairly low rates of taxation others have been unable to maintain a good level even with high rates of

¹⁰James Collins Miller, National Government and Education in Federated Democracies Dominion of Canada (Philadelphia, 1940), p. 20.

¹¹A.E. Buck, Financing Canadian Government (Chicago, 1949), p. 333.

taxation. Canada has taken some particularly promising means of helping this situation in recent years.

The United States has been seeking to improve the function of the state services but its approach has been through supplying funds and defining work standards. There is difficulty in separating sources of taxes as both federal and state governments use sources such as income, corporation, and inheritance taxes. Although there is much thought given to this, as yet no satisfactory basis has been found for the separation of federal and state sources of income.¹²

Canada previously met this problem with grants-in-aid or conditional subsidies. These were not too successful as the provinces preferred unconditional subsidies. Since as one of the conditions of federation unconditional subsidies were desired, they have been in use since then. There have been changes in the subsidies, and they have become augmented until they are the financial cornerstone of the federal structure. The disabilities of the poorer provinces have been taken into consideration. With the Second World War the Dominion Government took over income, corporation, and inheritance taxes from the provinces, and in return it takes greater responsibilities for provincial obligations, debts, and services. At the end of the war there was much debate as to the stabilization of provincial revenue sources and the role of the Dominion Government in relation to the provinces and taxation. With the parliamentary system in Canada the House of Commons controls the financial

¹²Ibid., 334.

structure largely. The Cabinet is the dominating committee of the House of Commons and also controls the administration and finances of the government. What it recommends to Commons, when supported by facts, must be adopted by the House or a change in Cabinet or dissolution of the House is precipitated. This serves to avoid the delays and deadlocks found under the American system with its dual executive and legislative powers.¹³

Quattlebaum¹⁴ indicates that for thirty years there have been advisory commissions recommending particular federal policies for education. Generally speaking, there has been agreement as to the various factors of the total question of whether the Federal Government should follow certain policies in relation to education. Their recommendations may be still applied generally as to federal relations to education at present. Some of the commissions have included the following criticisms: (1) Because of the dependence of local communities upon their own property taxation for school support some very poor educational conditions have developed; (2) That there have been too many federal agencies working on their own rather than in one united, integrated effort; and (3) That we have federal controls over education because of piecemeal, hurried legislation.

D. What This Study Will Encompass

This study will seek to define the basic issues in federal support of education to schools and institutions directly concerned with education per se.

¹³Ibid., 335-339.

¹⁴Charles A. Quattlebaum, Federal Educational Policies, Programs and Proposals (Washington, 1950), pp. 187-189.

That is, it will not attempt to study subsidies and support given to cultural institutions as museums, libraries, historical institutions and edifices, galleries, film boards, broadcasting corporations, or public archives. It will study and interpret educational services for children of military personnel in the United States and abroad but not the armed forces program of military education for their personnel. Research programs will be studied that are under the auspices of the federal government but not the research programs in military establishments that are under the auspices of the armed forces.

It will concentrate on the present aspects of federal support of education bringing this program to date, but will refer back to the historical background of the subject to provide a basis for understanding the present in relation to the past. Although the education of children of military personnel abroad will be studied, the scope of this paper will be limited to this, and other United States and Canadian programs of education in foreign lands through UNESCO and other like agencies will not be treated.

Although there is federal support of education to prevent juvenile delinquency and education in federally operated prisons, this aspect will not be considered.

CHAPTER II

A REVIEW OF UNITED STATES FEDERAL SUPPORT OF EDUCATION

A. Background in the Constitution

It is an interesting commentary that the word education does not appear in the Constitution. Nonetheless, it is seen that local, state, and federal governments all take part in the control and support of education. Schools are indispensable for the general welfare of the people.

State rights are defined in the Constitution and provision is made for the executive departments, that is the Departments of Justice, Post Office, Interior, Agriculture, Labor, Commerce, State, Treasury, and Defense which derive their powers from the Chief Executive, in whom center the administrative powers of the nation. The recently added Department of Health, Education and Welfare, also numerous boards and commissions authorized by Congress, most of the executive departments, as well as Congress now take part in public education.

There are several references in the Constitution which may be found to bear upon education. Fifteen excerpts from the Constitution will be found to have affected the development of education in the United States in some
¹
manner.

¹Federal Relations to Education: Part II, Basic Facts: A Report of the National Advisory Committee on Education (Washington, 1931), pp. 4-9.

(1) The Preamble of the Constitution states our political ideals which must be reinforced by our educational ideals in order to be realized. (2) A second reference is found in Article I, Section 8:1, which states that The Congress shall have power to lay and collect taxes, duties, imports and excises to pay the debts and provide for the common defense and general welfare of the United States. The reference here is to general welfare in the promulgation of which education plays a prominent part. (3) The establishment of the Post Office Department with its free mail for official educational agencies is an educational undertaking of great significance for the dissemination of learning.

(4) The fourth item is more explicit as to the powers of Congress to support education. Article I, Section 8:8 says the Congress shall have power to promote the progress of science and useful arts, by securing for limited times to authors and inventors the exclusive rights to their respective writings and discoveries. (5) Military education is provided for to a certain degree by Article I, Section 8:16 which authorizes the training of the militia. (6) A sixth statement found in Article I, Section 8:17 provides authority for Congress in the District of Columbia and the Canal Zone. Regular appropriations for education are made by Congress for these areas. (7) Chartered educational institutions are protected from legislative interference in a state by Article I, Section 10:1. (8) An eighth statement empowers the President to make appointments. Article II, Section 2:2 enabled the President to make such appointments as the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare, Commissioner and Assistant Commissioner of Education, members of the Federal Board for Vocational Education, and federal officials in charge of education in federal areas. (9) A reference is made in Article III, Section 2:1

indicating that an educational institution will be protected where state legislation is displeasing to the Constitution. The Judicial power shall extend to all cases, in law and equity, arising under this Constitution. . . .

(10) A tenth statement enables Congress to cause educational requirements to be incorporated by the states under Article IV, Section 3:1. New States may be admitted by the Congress into this Union; . . . (11) Article IV, Section 3:2 enables Congress to make all needful rules and regulations within our territories and possessions which covers the field of education. (12) An important statement in regard to education is found in Article X, in which Amendment it is implied that education is a prerogative left to the states or to the people.

(13) The fact that citizenship of the United States is separate from citizenship in a state is shown in the Fourteenth Amendment. Federal aid may potentially be exerted to form better citizens of the nation. Education for better citizenship is reasonable. Citizenship of the United States depends upon birth or naturalization whereas requirements may vary in the states for citizenship, as for example residential requirements. (14) The fourteenth reference in the Constitution that may be applied to education was applied in both the Nebraska and the Hawaiian Cases before the Supreme Court. Article XIV, Section 1. . . .nor shall any State deprive any person of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law. . . . It was felt that the rights of private school owners, parents, and children were infringed upon in the aforementioned cases. (15) A final reference is found in the First Amendment which states that Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof. This is concerned with the establishment and operation of religious schools.

B. Political Philosophy and Educational Policy

A profound relationship between political philosophies and educational policies is found today in several countries. The Soviet Union admittedly uses its educational system to further its political doctrine and control. In the United States and Canada traditionally there was an absence of federal control or interference in education.²

The principle of duality in government was accepted when the United States adopted the Constitution. The separate states came together and set up a government which received delegated powers and all such powers not delegated to the government were reserved to the states themselves. The Constitution adopts the philosophy of "separation of powers" or "checks and balances." In the United States each branch of the government has its own field of responsibility. When there is conflict between the executive and legislative branches of the government, the period of office for each and the next election decides which authority is likely to prevail. However, the legislative and executive organs of the national government do not control the legislation by the states as long as the states are within their constitutional rights. With the passage of the tenth amendment the relationship of the national government to education was clarified. As education was neither a delegated nor prohibited power, it was a field reserved for the authority of the states. The states have full and exclusive responsibility for education and may control it in any fashion they

²James Collins Miller, National Government and Education in Federated Democracies, Dominion of Canada. (Philadelphia, 1940), p. 1.

they desire provided a majority of the citizens obtain the legislation necessary.³

The general trend of the Amendments to the Constitution has been to give the people greater rights and to protect their privileges as well as to strengthen the federal government. The power of the states has tended to diminish, and the power of the federal government has been enlarged and strengthened. A strong national government has been found to be necessary.⁴

Improvement in transportation and communication which tends to break down provincial boundaries and the interdependence of our economy has shaken the old economic self-sufficiency of local townships. In the past communities were able to take care of themselves in regard to health, welfare, and education. Now we find larger centers being set up for these purposes. Local institutions are no longer able to meet the financial demands made upon them and dependence upon the national government becomes a necessity. International cooperation between nations has been found to be necessary at this time in order to stabilize world economy.⁵

The Constitution has been emphatic in setting forth rights and privileges but does not indicate to any extent obligations and responsibilities. These obligations of citizens in a democracy must be fulfilled if the democracy is to survive. If we have a selfish attitude toward regional and economic

³Ibid., pp. 9-10.

⁴Ibid., p. 11.

⁵Ibid., p. 14.

interests rather than considering the general welfare of our whole country, national unity can not be maintained. Democracy is not fully attained if we have made no progress toward equal educational opportunity for every child in the nation. There is a need for legislation to redistribute educational functions among the various local and national governmental agencies. Whatever principles control our government, the schools are a basic institution and can be an instrument of interpretation. Education in a democracy should exemplify the principles and practices of democracy.⁶

Miller suggests the following nine points that education in a democracy should serve: (1) Every child has to be educated in those basic learnings necessary for his self-development and for citizenship; (2) Further education of the youth of the nation for the obligations of citizenship and vocational training of these persons; (3) The training of youth for leadership in various activities and provision for the continuance of their education in these fields; (4) The motivation, aid, and coordination of the work of those who make contributions to man's knowledge; (5) The motivation, aid, and coordination of the work of those who make contributions to man's knowledge of himself and his relations with his fellow men; (6) The application of man's intelligence to the solution of problems of coexistence with a persistence comparable to that which has been used in solving problems of the physical environment; (7) Agencies of higher education looking for more adequate meanings to the significance of human life and its relationship to reality must work together; (8) A tolerance for new ideas and those who would foster them;

⁶Ibid., pp. 14-19.

and (9) The provision of facilities for adult education and stimulation of adults to participate in activities conducive to personal growth and improved citizenship. In this age the adult can no longer stop growing either in vocational achievement or competent citizenship.⁷

C. Early Grants to States

There were two general types of grants of federal aid in its early history. One type was those grants which were made specifically to be used in education. The second type was those grants which although not marked particularly for educational purposes came to be used in the service of education to a certain degree.

The Ordinances of 1785 and 1787 were significant for American education and were among the first early attempts toward federal aid for education. The Ordinance of 1785 reserved the sixteenth section in every township which arose from the public domain for education. This was a method for attracting settlers and was significant as a precedent for public education. The Ordinance of 1787 in Art. 3d stated that education in schools would always be encouraged since knowledge, morality, and religion were necessary to a good government and to man's happiness. This ordinance in a measure reinforced the previous one.⁸

The procedure which was known as the "enabling act" stipulated that states

⁷Ibid., pp. 19-20.

⁸Gordon Canfield Lee, The Struggle for Federal Aid (New York, 1949), pp. 11-12.

should submit their constitutions to Congress for approval before they were admitted to the Union. Those states which were admitted under this act, among which Ohio was the first, agreed to abide by the conditions of various federal grants in which education was included. Ohio was admitted to the Union in 1802 and with it began the practice of including this agreement in state constitutions.⁹

The enabling acts which newly admitted states agreed to gradually develop a stronger policy of provision of land grants for education. Sometimes the different educational uses which might be made of these grants were specifically stated by the Congress. The type of educational institution which either existed or was proposed was provided for and how sales and leases should be carried out was defined. There has been a steady growth from a few simple stipulations to complicated and lengthy requirements as the history is studied from the earlier to the most recent acts passed by Congress. The Enabling Act for Ohio stated that if certain public lands sold by Congress would be exempt from taxation and certain provisions complied with including some for schools, the state might be admitted to the union. In 1803 another act was passed by Congress which stipulated the establishment of an academy in the District of Cincinnati.¹⁰

Occasionally since 1803 there have been federal land grants to educational institutions which were designated specifically. Early grants made by Congress

⁹Federal Relations, p. 12.

¹⁰Ibid., pp. 12-14.

to the thirty public land states gave an area about ten times as large as the State of Maryland for common schools. Congress also gave these states over 76,000,000 acres of other lands which were used by many states in part wholly for the support of schools. Monetary grants which came from the sale of public lands were given to the states by Congress in the first half of the nineteenth century. Very often these funds were used to support education. The land and money grants were for education in general except for those few made to specific institutions. There was no federal interference in the use of these funds as Congress did not specify the type of education to be provided.¹¹

At the time of the debates over the amount of federal aid that should be given to education, Representative Justin S. Morrill of Vermont had a considerable amount of precedent to draw upon. He had a proposal for subsidation of colleges of "agriculture in the mechanic arts" in 1857 and 1862. The 1857 Morrill Bill was the first attempt to set up a national policy for federal aid to education to be implemented by Congress. It was proposed in this bill that 20,000 acres of public land or its equivalent in scrip be allotted to each state for each of its members in Congress. The funds derived from the sale of these public lands were to be allocated to colleges which were to be established for the colleges devoted to these pursuits. Morrill stated in his arguments for the bill that much public land was being wasted by private parties, that there was a need for instruction in scientific agriculture and industrial fields as most of the college work of that period was in the

¹¹Charles A. Quattlebaum, Federal Educational Policies, Programs and Proposals, Part I, Background; Issues; Relevant Considerations (Washington, 1960), p. 9.

classical humanities or professions, and he stated that there was great divergence in the ability of various localities to support schools.¹²

There were opponents to federal aid including President Buchanan who vetoed this bill. It was stated that the bill interfered with states rights, that it was extravagant with the public patrimony, that it was only logical that if agricultural education were supported other types of education should be supported, and it was alleged to be unconstitutional.¹³

The Thirty-ninth Congress in 1862 passed the second Morrill Bill. There were two major alterations in the bill, one was the increase to 30,000 acres of land to be allotted for each Congressman and the second was the addition of military training to the proposed curriculum. The bill was passed mainly because of the lack of opposition of the Southern Congressmen who had previously opposed it and also the fact that its provision for military training seemed desirable in view of the war. There was much opposition to the bill from private colleges who wanted a share of the public funds too if they were no longer allowed to monopolize college training. Some Midwestern Senators opposed it because they feared Eastern and Seaboard states would encroach upon the public domain when given scrip. Their arguments were the same as those which are heard now. That is, the usurpation of states rights, unconstitutionality, and the ever present evil of federal control. Most significant in the Morrill Act was the fact that it served to equalize educational opportunity in

¹²Lee, pp. 12-14.

¹³Ibid., p. 14.

that it took land from the states which had it and gave it to those states which did not have it.¹⁴

The Hatch Act provided grants to states in the form of annual money payments or subventions. This was a significant departure from the previous acts which had donated money in lump sums or areas of land. The Hatch Act was a federally supported service which promoted scientific investigation, and experimentation in the field of agricultural education. The principle of equality in the amount of donation to the states is followed in this act. The sum of \$15,000 per annum was appropriated to each state from year to year to be taken out of the treasury from the sales of public lands. In this act of 1887 Congress specifically denoted the purposes for which this money was to be employed. Reports are required by the Federal Government on the work of the experiment stations. These reports are to be published at least once in three months and a copy sent to each newspaper in the states in which they are located. Supplementary acts to the Hatch Act were the Adams Act, 1906 and the Purnell Act, 1925. Additional money was appropriated in these acts and additional stipulations were added. The principle of equality of allotments to the separate states was still adhered to.¹⁵

D. National Defense

Direct use is made of several federal schools and also other private and public educational institutions in training citizens for national defense. The Federal Government has two different types of students, those who are educated

¹⁴Ibid., p. 15.

¹⁵Federal Relations, pp. 37-42.

for the Armed Forces of the United States and secondly certain civilians whose education is provided by the National Defense Act. Almost all subject fields on all educational levels are provided for by the Department of Defense.

1. Educational Program of the Army

There is a distinction between federal aid to states for education and the educational program of the Federal Government in relation to its own activities. It was found that officers needed to be trained for the army and therefore the Military Academy of West Point was established in 1802. In July, 1866, the post school system for enlisted men provided troops in any permanent camp with instruction in the common areas of education with emphasis on the history of the United States.¹⁶

The Morrill Act of 1862 propagated a large supply of reserve officers with its establishment of a system of military education in civil educational institutions. The system of troop schools for officers was instigated in 1891. The Army Medical School in Washington established in 1893 and the Army War College in 1901 are two examples. There are other special service schools which teach the techniques and tactics of the type of school concerned with the objective of qualifying instructors for the Regular Army, the National Guard, the ROTC, the citizens military training camps, and they seek to provide leaders for all units.¹⁷

The Army's educational system by 1939 included the Military Academy, the

¹⁶Quattlebaum, I, p. 10.

¹⁷Federal Relations, p. 363.

ROTC, those who were being trained under the Thompson Act of 1935, the Air Corps schools, and the Citizens Military Training Camps which all provided pre-commission instruction. World War II established "the largest university on the face of the earth" which utilized more than 300 campuses in the United States by 1953. Soldiers were sent to college who never would have been able to go otherwise. The Army provided a program for the education of dependents in 1947. The National Defense Act of 1916 which provided for the ROTC to qualify students for leadership was amended in 1948 to allow the Army to use civilian educational institutions for advanced academic instruction of qualified persons. The Mutual Security Act of 1954 as amended allows the Army to provide instructional assistance to several allied countries to enable them to provide for their internal safety and the development of their armed forces.¹⁸

2. Educational Program of the Navy

Dean Joseph W. Barker, Special Assistant to the Secretary of the Navy said in 1942, "The Navy itself has become one huge school." Specifically the U. S. Naval Academy was established at Annapolis, Maryland in 1845. Shore based schools were begun in the 1880's to provide specialists from both enlisted men and officers. This method of training developed greatly during the First and Second World Wars.¹⁹

In 1920 the Naval Academy Preparatory School was established and this was followed in 1925 by the Naval Reserve Officers Training Corps. The NROTC was to coincide, be patterned after the Army ROTC. New types of equipment and

¹⁸Quattlebaum, I, pp. 11-12.

¹⁹Ibid., pp. 12-13.

methods of warfare have required the Navy to carry on a continuous training program to this day. Adaptations to make changes particularly in engineering has caused the formation of such programs as the Navy enlisted scientific education program and programs in areas such as nuclear power and guided missiles.²⁰

The Marine Corps is a component part of the Navy and has shared in its educational activities. The Marine Corps Institute, established in 1920, has offered correspondence courses for marines in addition to which the Marine Corps schools at Quantico, Virginia and other technical schools cover both theory and practical aspects of training. Courses are given in clerical work, foreign languages, engineering, radio, and other areas.²¹

3. Educational Program of the Air Corps

The Air Forces became autonomous in 1947 and a full member of the Department of Defense as now designated. The major sections of the Air Force educational system are the Air University, the Air Force Academy, and the Air Training Command. In addition these services are supplemented by the Air Force Reserve training and Air National Guard training which is managed by the Continental Air Command. Basic military training and officer education: education for medical and dental officers; education in the sciences, foreign languages, engineering, and management are offered by the air force. The Air Corps initiated its program of education under an act in 1939 while still part

²⁰Ibid., p. 14.

²¹Ibid.

of the Army. Since then it has had a high degree of excellence in its training program and in cooperation with civilian educational institutions has been able to meet the demands of an increasingly technological society.²²

4. National Defense Education Act

The National Defense Education Act passed in 1958 is highly significant in its policy making role for the field of education. The Act indicates that the country needs the skills of its young people which have to be developed. For the defense of the country scientific frontiers have to be explored and developed. The Act is to provide "substantial assistance in various forms to individuals and to states." Low interest loans are made to students for education in colleges and universities and federal grants are made to state educational agencies to upgrade instruction in mathematics, science, and modern foreign languages in public schools from the elementary to the junior college level. These are but two phases of an extensive program which inaugurates a new federal policy of financial aid to education. Further discussion of this act will be found in Chapter IV.²³

E. Federal Jurisdiction Legislation

The Federal Government has jurisdiction over a number of areas not included in any of the states. These areas comprise the District of Columbia, various territories and outlying possessions, Indian reservations, and other types of

²²Ibid., pp. 14-15.

²³Ibid., p. 17.

federal reservations such as military posts, national parks, and foreign stations under the jurisdiction of the United States. The Federal Government has complete control over some of these areas and concurrent powers in others.²⁴

In 1804 an act of Congress established public schools for the city of Washington. In 1871 the territorial form of government was established, and it was the responsibility of the government to maintain a free system of education for all its children. Under the Federal Constitution Congress has the authority "to exercise exclusive legislation in all cases whatsoever" for the District of Columbia. It is therefore seen that Congress is to provide a complete system of education for this district.²⁵

The Office of Indian Affairs organized in 1824 has had charge of federal educational services for Indians. Originally with the War Department it is now under the jurisdiction of the Department of the Interior as of 1849. It is a major part of the government's Indian policy to supervise education for Indians. The Indian Reorganization Act of June 18, 1934, allowed the Indians to take a greater part in the control of their affairs. They now use various democratic procedures to manage their communities and the policy of the Office of Indian Affairs is to educate the Indians to the point where they are economically and socially efficient. Day schools, boarding schools, community centers, and aid to states have all contributed in the education of the Indian.²⁶

²⁴Report of the Committee: A Report by the United States Advisory Committee on Education (Washington, 1938), p. 162.

²⁵Ibid., Quattlebaum I, p. 18.

²⁶Advisory Committee, 1938, pp. 173-174; Quattlebaum, I, p. 18.

The Isthmian Canal Commission initiated a program to establish public schools in the Canal Zone in 1905. The Federal Government provides free elementary and secondary schools and a junior college which charges tuition for the Canal Zone. The policy of the Federal Government in general in regard to outlying possessions has been to encourage self-initiative on the part of these districts in developing their schools. They are given only as much federal aid as is deemed necessary. The situation in Hawaii and Alaska has been altered since these territories were admitted to statehood. Other government reservations such as the Tennessee Valley Authority have received federal funds for education.²⁷

F. Land-Grant Colleges

The Morrill Act of 1862, best known of land-grant statutes, donated public lands to the states and territories for the establishment of colleges to instruct agriculture and mechanical arts. The land-grant type of college was provided because of the need of this type of education in an era when other colleges gave a classical education for all those who went on to a higher level of learning. They have made an important contribution in terms of providing leadership in agricultural areas. Federally aided services of agricultural research have used these colleges as working centers. The department of agriculture has supervised this research and has helped to avoid duplication of projects in research and has coordinated the efforts of these centers. The Hatch Act of 1887 appropriated \$15,000 to each state for experimental work in

²⁷Quattlebaum I, p. 19.

agricultural stations in connection with the land-grant colleges. The Second Morrill Act in 1890 gave money grants for resident instruction at these colleges. In 1914 the government provided for agricultural and home economics instruction to be provided in extension work in connection with the land-grant colleges in cooperation with the Department of Agriculture. This was the Smith-Lever Act. The Federal Government in subsequent acts has continued to provide additional funds for this work on a matching basis. These grants are increased annually under the Bankhead-Jones Act of 1935. Annual appropriations are made due to laws enacted by Congress which provided for continuing aid to these land-grant colleges and universities. There are sixty-eight of these educational institutions and federal funds for their use are administered by the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.²⁸

G. Vocational Education

Vocational education was motivated by the passage of the Federal Vocational Education Act in 1917. Previous to this federal aid had been extended to provide training in industrial and agricultural education through the Morrill Act of 1862, the Second Morrill Act, the Nelson Amendment, the Hatch Act, the Adams Act, the Smith-Lever Act, and this Smith-Hughes or Vocational Education Act was a culmination in which vocational education below the college level was supported. This Vocational Education Act in addition to providing funds for public schools and other schools giving training of this type also allotted funds for the professional training of vocational teachers. This

²⁸Advisory Committee, 1938, p. 144; Quattlebaum I, p. 21.

legislation helped three types of persons, those whose field was agriculture and desired training, those who desired industrial training, and those interested in home economics.²⁹

The Vocational Education Act requires the federal administration to approve plans made by the states for the use of the money. A new type of administrative organization was formed to implement this act. The Federal Board for Vocational Education was created consisting of the Secretary of Agriculture, Secretary of Commerce, Secretary of Labor, the United States Commissioner of Education, and three citizens of the United States appointed by the President by and with the consent of the Senate. These citizens each represent one of the following, labor, agricultural, or commercial interests. One of the members is elected each year to serve as chairman. This board cooperates with the state boards. This act is particularly significant because of the great amount of federal control of the state's use of federal money which it exacts.³⁰

Further funds were appropriated for vocational education by the George-Reed Act of 1929 of four year duration and the George-Ellzey Act of 1934 lasting three years, both below college level. The George-Dean Act of 1936 enlarged the program but was superceded by the George-Barden Act of 1946 still extant. In this act federal aid is provided for the renting or purchasing of equipment, the purchasing of supplies, the establishment of programs for apprentices, and for administration, supervision, teacher training, instruction, and guidance in vocational education. The George-Barden Act has since been extended and includes

²⁹Federal Relations, p. 54; Quattlebaum I, p. 21.

³⁰Federal Relations, pp. 56-57.

training for practical nurses and other health occupations below college level.³¹

H. Aid During the Depression of the 1930's

Federal emergency relief programs during the depression provided educational activities under the administration of federal agencies. The Civilian Conservation Corps, the Public Forum Project, Projects for Research in Universities, Emergency Educational Radio Programs, Local School Units Projects, National Youth Administration, Works Progress Administration program for school construction, Federal Emergency Relief Administration funds for emergency educational programs, student aid, rural school extension, literacy classes, adult education, nursery schools, and Public Works Administration projects in schoolhouse construction were all facets of federal aid during the depression years. The Civilian Conservation Corps gave employment and vocational training to individuals in need of occupations. Young men between the ages of seventeen and twenty-one carried on projects for the Forest Service, the National Park Service, and the Soil Conservation Service. In addition, some state agencies also directed work projects. The War Department was mainly responsible for the welfare of these youth but the educational policies for the camps were under the advisement of a Director of Civilian Conservation Corps Camp Education who was stationed in the United States Office of Education.³²

³¹U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education, Federal Funds for Education, 1956-57 and 1957-58, Bulletin 1959, No. 2 (Washington, 1959), pp. 50-51; Quattlebaum I, pp. 21-22.

³²Advisory Committee, 1938, p. 117; Quattlebaum I, p. 23.

The National Youth Administration also provided on the job training for needy youth and gave part time employment to students who needed their finances supplemented. Young people were given educational opportunities and were taught skills which would enable them to find employment. They were also given occupational guidance. Rehabilitation and stimulation of educational interests and vocational training were major goals in both of these youth programs.³³

I. Veteran Education

World War I initiated the program of vocational rehabilitation training for veterans. A federal board for vocational education had the responsibility for providing instruction necessary to insure vocational rehabilitation. They also took care of the maintenance and support of these veterans and their dependents to the extent it was necessary to secure their vocational rehabilitation and placement in a remunerative occupation.³⁴

In 1921 the United States Veterans' Bureau which worked independently and had the powers and responsibilities of the previous Federal Board for Vocational Education was established. Courses for veterans to enable them to take part in gainful occupations were under the authority of the Veterans' Bureau. The Vocational Rehabilitation Act of 1943 was similar to the act which provided for World War I veterans. However, following this law the necessity of sound vocational guidance was emphasized. Also, the administration decided

³³Advisory Committee, 1938, p. 119.

³⁴Quattlebaum I, p. 24.

that the veteran should be educated in his own community as near as possible and that training would be given in accredited schools which were already established and first class situations for apprenticeships.³⁵

In 1944 a program of financial aid to veterans of unprecedented scope was initiated. The veteran was allowed to pursue an education in any type of trade or profession provided that he went to schools approved by the government. Those eligible under this Public Law 346 had to begin their studies by July 25, 1951 or within four years of the veteran's first discharge from World War II active military service after July 25, 1947. This training was only to be given for nine years after the end of World War II, July 25, 1947, except for those who had enlisted or reenlisted in the regular Army, Navy, Marine Corps, or Coast Guard during the period from October 6, 1945 to October 5, 1946. Public Law 550 is similar to Public Law 346 but entitles the veteran to use one and one-half times the period of active service up to a maximum of thirty-six months of entitlement. There are differences between the two laws in that Public Law 346 authorized the Veterans Administration to pay for fees, tuition, books, and supplies directly to the training institutions. The veterans received amounts for subsistence and for their dependents directly from the administration. In Public Law 550, which is in use for eight years after discharge from the Armed Forces but may not extend beyond January 31, 1965, veterans receive their payments directly from the Administration and arrange for the payment of their own tuition and fees. The student does his own selection of courses in approved institutions, takes care of his books, supplies, and

³⁵ Ibid., p. 25.

tuition. He may receive counseling, but there is no planned program for this.³⁶ It will be noted that this financial aid to veterans is given to those who attend both public and private institutions irregardless of the religious denomination of these institutions.

J. Aid to Institutions

The general rule has been that schools and colleges privately owned and controlled have not been the recipients of federal aid. However, there are three exceptions: The American Printing House for Blind, The Columbia Institution for the Deaf now designated as Gallaudet College, and Howard University for Negroes. The principle seems to be that these institutions have a quasi-federal character and meet a great humanitarian need. The American Printing House for Blind receives money which is appropriated to enable them to publish books and educational materials for the blind. The products of this institution are distributed free to every state school for the blind in the United States. Therefore, it has a national character. State and local public institutions which educate the blind as well as public schools with blind children in attendance receive allotments of materials and may purchase additional materials produced by the American Printing House for Blind at cost.³⁷

The Gallaudet College has the responsibility to furnish educational training for deaf persons. Congress provides annual appropriations for current operating expenses and essential building construction. Located in the District of Columbia, the college now has twenty-six buildings. Through the Kendall

³⁶Federal Funds, pp. 165-166.

³⁷Ibid., p. 55; Federal Relations, p. 72.

School the administration of Gallaudet College provides elementary and secondary education for deaf students of the District of Columbia and its neighboring states. It also has a laboratory school for student teachers offering a master's degree in the education of the deaf to normal hearing students.³⁸

Howard University was established in 1867 in the District of Columbia. It is a semi-public institution with eight professional schools; engineering, architecture, dentistry, pharmacy, medicine, religion, social work, and law. Federal funds are not used to aid the school of religion. This institution is primarily for the education of negroes. A very limited supervision is given it by the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Federal funds are its principal income but additional income is obtained from gifts and grants, endowments, student fees, and other sources usually found for this purpose by universities.³⁹

K. Scholarships

The NROTC, previously discussed, is considered a scholarship type of aid. The National Science Foundation Act of 1950 was authorized "to promote the progress of science; advance the national health, prosperity, and welfare; secure the national defense and for other purposes."⁴⁰ This program has the broad aims of encouraging research in science, better science education, the awarding of fellowships in science, the exchange of information in different

³⁸Federal Funds, pp. 56-57.

³⁹Ibid., p. 58; Quattlebaum I, p. 27.

⁴⁰Federal Funds, p. 191.

scientific fields between our scientists and those in foreign countries, and the evaluation of our science research programs in relation to industry and the welfare of the people.⁴¹

The Division of Scientific Personnel in Education is the authority of the National Science Foundation which takes responsibility for the training of scientists and engineers. However, many graduate assistants are given experience and training in research under the research support programs. This division manages programs in the category of evaluation of the Nation's scientific manpower, it administers programs for training of scientific manpower necessary to the safety of the country, and it identifies problems in science education and supports experimental programs for improvement of science education. Science students are stimulated and aided, science teachers trained, and subject matter and curricular material are developed.⁴²

The National Science Foundation awards pre and post doctoral fellowships in mathematics, physics, medicine, biology, engineering, and other sciences yearly. Citizens of the United States are eligible and are given aptitude and achievement tests administered by Educational Testing Service, Princeton, New Jersey. Institute programs to improve science teaching are held under this Foundation's sponsorship and special projects in science education including student programs to identify and motivate budding scientists, programs to improve course content, and programs to aid teachers to take refresher courses

⁴¹Ibid., p. 191.

⁴²Ibid., p. 192.

and improve their subject matter knowledge of science and mathematics are offered.⁴³

The Atomic Energy Act of 1946 was amended by the Atomic Energy Act of 1954 and established the Atomic Energy Commission. A small number of fellowships in radiological physics, industrial medicine, and industrial hygiene were created under this Commission. Programs for assisting and fostering research in universities; to encourage maximum progress in scientific fields; the issuing of information on atomic energy to stimulate development and use; research to insure adequate scientific development; and the donating of materials, teaching aids equipment, and other aid are among the activities of the Atomic Energy Commission.⁴⁴

The National Cancer Institute Act of 1937 initiated the policy of research fellowships in the area of public health. The 84th Congress established fellowships for students in the field of medicine at different levels. Congress appropriates money to the National Institutes of Health of the Public Health Service. The Division of Research Grants, National Institute of Arthritis and Metabolic Diseases, National Institute of Neurological Diseases and Blindness, National Cancer Institute, National Institute of Dental Research, National Institute of Mental Health, National Institute of Allergy and Infectious Diseases, and Division of Nursing Resources gives fellowships.⁴⁵

⁴³Ibid., p. 194.

⁴⁴Ibid., p. 174; Quattlebaum I, p. 28.

⁴⁵Federal Funds, p. 64.

Under the National Defense Education Act of 1958, Title II provides loans to students in institutions of higher education. Low interest loans are made to students to enable them to study at these approved institutions. The Federal Government usually contributes ninety per cent of the capital for these loans and the institution will provide ten per cent. This Act prohibits federal control over the program of instruction, the administration, the personnel, or the curriculum of any institution receiving this aid. Under Title IV the NDEA provides fellowships in graduate schools of universities and colleges for persons interested in teaching in these institutions of higher learning. Title VI provides for institutes to give advanced training in new methods of foreign language instruction for those preparing to teach or teaching in this area. Title VII gives grants-in-aid to institutions, organizations, and individuals doing research on more effective use of television, radio, motion picture, and related fields. To assist states in the development of their vocational education programs, Title VIII provides aid for the training of technicians, or skilled workers in areas needed for national defense. Title IX establishes a Science Information Service with a Science Information Council. The National Science Foundation will carry out the function of the Science Information Service with the same authority that it has under the National Science Foundation Act of 1950.⁴⁶

⁴⁶The National Defense Education Act of 1958: A Summary and Analysis of the Act: Prepared by the Staff of the Committee on Labor and Public Welfare: United States Senate (Washington, 1958), pp. 8-20.

L. Exchange Programs

There are several types of exchange programs in the field of international education. The bilateral relations which the United States Government under its own national program of cultural cooperation with other countries implements the relationships the United States Government has when engaged with such international organizations as the Pan American Union, and those relationships of educational programs which are carried on with defeated nations to teach them democratic living. There has been an increasing amount of emphasis placed on intercultural exchange activities of this type.⁴⁷

The Educational Exchange Program and the International Cooperation Administration are two cultural programs carried on by the United States Government to foster friendly relations with people of other countries. Approximately six thousand exchanges a year are carried on by the Department of State between the United States and other nations. Students, lecturers, research scholars, teachers, leaders, and specialists are given the privilege of studying in foreign countries and their people of coming to the United States. The United States is endeavoring to build up a trust in other peoples that its objectives are to live in harmony with the world and to promote each nation's hopes for peace, prosperity, and liberty.⁴⁸

Two-thirds of the persons operating under the exchange program are foreign

⁴⁷ Quattlebaum I, p. 28.

⁴⁸ Federal Funds, p. 149.

students who come to the United States to become familiar with the American way of life and to be trained in various fields of specialization. The other one-third under the exchange program are American students who go abroad to study other countries, to become specialists in areas of learning, and to share American achievements with those abroad.⁴⁹

There are several congressional authorizations to implement exchange of students; there are those which come under the act for cooperation with Pan American republics, those which are authorized by the Fulbright Act, and the Smith-Mundt Act initiated a procedure for all educational exchange programs. There are also some special programs with India and Finland which are compensated for with special funds coming from debts of those countries, earmarked for this purpose.⁵⁰

The Office of Education cooperates with the Department of State to arrange programs wherein American and foreign teachers exchange positions for a year where qualified American teachers receive grants to teach abroad and foreign teachers come to the United States to study its school practices. Section 201 of the Smith-Mundt Act enables foreign nationals to come to the United States as non-immigrants for legitimate educational purposes and facilitates exchange-visitor visa programs. President Truman signed the Fulbright Act which provided that the funds from the sale of surplus properties abroad might be used for educational exchange purposes. It established a Board of Foreign Scholarships to screen persons to receive these awards and supervise the activities.⁵¹

⁴⁹Ibid., p. 150.

⁵⁰Ibid.

⁵¹Ibid., p. 153; Quattlebaum I, p. 29.

M. Other Programs

There are a few other particularly significant programs of federal aid to education. Dating from 1918 the Federal Immigration and Naturalization Service has been cooperating with public schools by providing them with materials to help educate immigrants for citizenship. The National School Lunch Program established in 1933 gave some aid for school lunches. However, in 1946 the National School Lunch Act solidified the program and gave it further impetus. The act provided for funds to be given public and private schools below the college level which operated school lunchroom programs on a nonprofit basis. This aid is given on the basis of need and the number of lunches served. In 1956 Congress established a policy of providing grants for library services in rural areas. Appropriations have been made yearly since then for this purpose. There is a Public Law 813 which provides funds for the State Committees on Education Beyond the High School. This was an important step in the promotion of educational conferences on national problems.⁵²

⁵²Federal Funds, p. 85; Quattlebaum I, pp. 31-32.

CHAPTER III

A REVIEW OF CANADIAN FEDERAL SUPPORT OF EDUCATION

A. Background in the Constitution

Some seventy-eight years had elapsed from the time of the framing of the United States Constitution to the period when the Canadian founding fathers were working on a Constitution for their country. They determined to profit from what in their opinion had shown them greater unity was needed than was experienced as a result of the United States Constitution.

The Honorable John A. Macdonald, when moving the adoption of the resolution in the Legislative Assembly of the Province of Canada in favor of confederation, said in part:

We had the advantage of the experience of the United States. It is the fashion now to enlarge on the defects of the Constitution of the United States, but I am not one of those who look upon it as a failure. I think and believe that it is one of the most skillful works which human intelligence ever created. It is one of the most perfect organizations that ever governed a free people. We can now take advantage of the experience of the last seventy-eight years during which that constitution has existed, and I am strongly of the belief that we have, in a great measure, avoided in this system which we propose for the adoption of the people of Canada, the defects which time and events have shown to exist in the American constitution.¹

Thus we have a contrast between the Constitutions of Canada and the United States, a contrast of unity versus duality. The Canadian Constitution has associated responsibility where the executive organ is closely associated with

¹ James Collins Miller, National Government and Education in Federated Democracies Dominion of Canada (Philadelphia, 1910), p. 5.

the legislative organ in a functional unity. In the United States we have a series of checks and balances and each branch of government has its own field of responsibility. The national government in Canada operates with the interest of Canada as a whole for its objective.²

The Canadian Constitution does not have a Bill of Rights to guarantee freedom of speech, religion, or of the press. In the Canadian Provinces, therefore exclusive jurisdiction is held over the area of education with but one exception. This exception is found in the British North America Act of 1867 which wrote in a section to protect minorities of religious faiths in regard to denominational schools. The British North America Act has just had three amendments added to it since 1867, and these have tended to restrict the jurisdiction of the National Government with the exception of one of the amendments. The trend is to sustain the powers of the provinces since the National Government when formed was given a strong position to insure unity in crucial periods.³

The British North America Act gave the provinces almost complete authority over education. In order to achieve Confederation in 1867 it was necessary to guarantee to the provinces educational autonomy. The Roman Catholic majority in Quebec needed this assurance.⁴ The British North America Act, section 93 stated:

²Ibid., pp. 6-7.

³Ibid., pp. 11-12.

⁴Charles E. Phillips, The Development of Education in Canada (Toronto, 1957), p. 316.

In and for each Province the Legislature may exclusively make laws in relation to Education, subject, and according to the following provisions:

(1) Nothing in any such law shall prejudicially affect any Right or Privilege with respect to Denominational Schools which any class of persons have by Law in the Province at the Union.

Although there was much controversy pro and con the issue of separate schools, in general the separate schools have held their own. However, these schools suffered financially just as the denominational schools in England suffered because of the increased costs of public education. Another problem in Ontario particularly was the determination of the upper limits of separate school rights. In Quebec Protestant minority rights were made to continue through the academic secondary school grades. In addition to this the two denomination system in Quebec had the problem of those children who were neither Protestant or Catholic. After various methods of adjustment of this problem were tried, in 1930 these children were to be educated by the Protestant School Board in Montreal with the provision that the Roman Catholic Board share the excess cost of their education with the Protestant Board. This cost was whatever sum exceeded the collection from taxpayers of minority faith.

A similar problem, that of a dual school system, arose in Manitoba. In 1871 they joined the Confederation and set up the dual school system as allowed by the British North America Act. After much litigation due to problems which arose because of the comparatively high cost and economic inefficiency of separate school facilities, in 1890 legislation was passed to establish a single system of nonsectarian free public schools. A nation-wide controversy on whether the Manitoba legislature was empowered to abolish separate school

privileges ensured. Other examples could be cited where duality of culture and the dual school systems which took place in the provinces created much dissention. Cases were brought to court. However, among the nine provinces of Canada only Quebec has retained a split of authority for the operation of the schools. Changes in political structure and in the attitudes of the people of Canada have raised and continue to raise problems as to religious education in the public schools.⁵

Amendments to the British North America Act have been concerned mainly with the territorial representation in Parliament, the increase in senatorial membership, subsidies to the provinces by the Dominion, and the giving of public lands. Although this Act is often considered Canada's Constitution, it is not a Constitution in the strict sense that the American Constitution is. Precedence of custom, usage, and practice are often of more influence than the provisions or amendments of the British North America Act.⁶

B. Political Philosophy and Educational Policy

In the early nineteenth century people had not accepted fully the idea that all children should be educated and that this education should be provided and controlled by the people. In Canadian education five steps may be discerned by which the concept of education controlled by the public was established.⁷ It was necessary first to procure recognition that it was the

⁵Ibid., pp. 315-334.

⁶A. E. Buck, Financing Canadian Government (Chicago, 1949), pp. 5-6.

⁷Phillips, pp. 124-125.

state's responsibility to educate. Previous to this the family, the church, or philanthropic organizations were the institutions providing education. These institutions were usually denominational. However, English speaking Canadians could find no one particular denomination which was acceptable to all. This problem was a boost to the establishment of public education. State grants were given directly to the schools by the legislature of the provinces. This was a significant step and was more easily consummated in the grammar schools. There were some special cases where church responsibility for education was continued. Newfoundland and Quebec had denominational systems of education which persisted.

A second point in the transition to public control of education was the recognition by the state of the role of community initiative. Before the period when grants were voted for common public education, people in many communities had gone ahead on their own initiative to build a school and to hire a teacher. A committee of the legislature in Upper Canada stated before passing the Act of 1816 that in reference to the founding of common public schools "the people have shown among themselves a laudable zeal in this particular which ought to be aided."⁸ Nova Scotia in 1811, New Brunswick and Ontario in 1816 passed the Common School Acts which gave financial aid from the public treasury to the common school. This common school legislation in the three provinces provided aid only after the local settlers had built a school or given money for a school and its operation. A stipulation followed the original act which required that the teacher should have been providing his services for six months before any public money would be given. This was a basically new

⁸Ibid., p. 127.

concept in education since up to this time the thought was that initiative for public education, as shown by the people, was not to be encouraged.⁹

A committee of the legislature in Lower Canada in 1831 warned against "placing public money in the hands of societies or individuals practically liable to no sufficient responsibility, or regular or strict accountability, unless they at the same time have to apply a considerable portion of their own money along with that of the public."¹⁰ However, there was Protestant criticism of the failure of the legislature during the 1830's to encourage local initiative for public schools. As a result of this there was a considerable increase in the number of schools in Quebec from 1829 to 1836 because of government aid.¹¹

A third principle that had to be accepted was that of the establishment of a representative local authority. For people to be interested in an enterprise, it is necessary that they should have some control of this enterprise especially if they are to be required to support it financially. Some provinces came to see this quicker than others. In Nova Scotia and New Brunswick the people were not empowered to select their own school trustees until later in this period. It was not until 1858 that the three school trustees were elected in New Brunswick and not until 1850 that all three trustees were elected by the "rate-payers" of Nova Scotia.

⁹Ibid.

¹⁰Ibid.

¹¹Ibid.

Lower Canada had more religious conflict, and as a result it was not until 1846 that it became the practice for five school trustees to be elected from the parish and for the election of three trustees by "dissident residents" usually Protestants. In Upper Canada the first common school legislation of 1816 instituted the practice of electing three trustees as was customary in North America.

A fourth point that had to be considered was the development of the attitude of community responsibility toward education. The poorer people had sent their children to schools sponsored by the church and philanthropic organizations and did not have the initiative to take over the responsibility of the education of their children.¹² There was a marked preference of all people to accept financial aid to education rather than contributing on a communal basis. Precautions had to be taken that the community given state aid would provide a certain amount of local funds toward the support of education. Stipulations were made that the trustees furnish full particulars about attendance and membership and that the required portion of local funds, usually fifty per cent, had actually been provided by the community.

There were various degrees of experimentation in the different provinces, but the principle of giving some provincial aid to stimulate local provision of funds was carried out everywhere in Canada. An obstacle to local initiative was the independence of the well-to-do who had no desire to provide schools for the common people. The willingness of the large numbers of poorer people to accept charity was matched by the indifference of the richer citizens towards

¹²Ibid., p. 129.

the common school. Private schools were preferred by the more prosperous persons, and the contribution of all towards public education through taxation was not achieved until a later time. There was individual variations among people and among different localities. An example of indifference or lack of initiative would be found in the plight of settlements of fishermen in Prince Edward Island and Nova Scotia. Presumably in 1830, out of a community of 2500 people, three young men only had any education. The remainder of the population was totally illiterate. These three men had been instructed by their priest. The Abbe Sigogne's great work of the first forty years of the nineteenth century was very influential in promoting education for the Acadians. He helped inspire them to work together in establishing schools. However in most communities from Prince Edward Island to Upper Canada many of the people were willing to take the initiative for the establishment of public school education and needed but the incentive of government grants to help them.¹³

A fifth principle was that of the establishment of a central authority that would be acceptable to the people within a province. It was necessary to have this type of control to motivate and give direction to progress and to educate communities to standards of education. It was well that in the early period a strong central authority was not in operation since in this way local initiative was developed. However, the provincial authority that developed moved slowly and made but moderate requirements of the various

¹³Ibid., pp. 130-131.

localities for them to receive financial aid. A central authority was established in Upper Canada in the Maritime Provinces to examine and license teachers before 1824. Nova Scotia established a Board of School Commissioners in 1826, and by 1832 it had other duties including those of school inspection. In 1837 in New Brunswick the Lieutenant Governor appointed county boards for the examination and licensing of teachers. This establishment of central control was partly motivated through the fear of the infiltration of republican ideas from teachers coming from the United States. During the period from 1837 to 1852 Prince Edward Island, Upper and Lower Canada, and Nova Scotia developed the office of superintendents of education and provincial boards of education.

It is believed that between 1830 and 1840 from one-third to two-thirds of Canadian children were given from twelve to twenty-four months of schooling. Educational achievements were not only low in quantity but in quality as well since there were no authorized textbooks, courses of study, or courses of teacher training. Nova Scotia seems to have had comparatively good education among its English speaking people. This was followed by New Brunswick and Lower Canada, by Upper Canada, by Prince Edward Island, and then by New Foundland in this order. Therefore by 1840 the foundation for public education had been established in the eastern provinces. Towards the end of the century it had progressed and was copied by the western provinces.

As the status of education grew in Canada, the local authority became an elected school board. Always there were barriers and setbacks as there was hesitation on the part of the people and also hesitation to allow the people to elect school trustees. Until 1935 there was a tendency for the size of rural

administrative localities to become smaller but since then there has been a strong movement for consolidation of school districts in English speaking Canada. A significant step forward was made during the last part of the nineteenth century when support of education was made to depend upon property taxation. Previous to this the practice of achieving local support of education through rate-bills on parents was not always satisfactory, as too often the parents were unwilling or unable to pay. Up until present times most provinces have left the greater share of responsibility for financing education to the local communities. At present there is a trend toward the province assuming a greater share of educational costs.¹⁴

To date of 1949 there were twenty-three thousand local school districts in Canada. Usually the school boards are elected by the people and these boards administer the school districts in each province. The province of Quebec and other provinces to some extent which have a significant French population operate under two school systems, Catholic and Protestant. Each school system has its own school boards and school districts although there is some extension of one district into another. The school boards are usually quite independent of the municipal governments except in financial matters and even in this are given a certain amount of freedom.¹⁵

These provinces have developed their own methods of exercising provincial

¹⁴Dominion Bureau of Statistics, Education Division, Research Section, The Organization and Administration of Public Schools in Canada: Second Edition, 1960, Catalogue No. 81-510 (Ottawa, 1960), p. 11; Phillips, pp. 299-300.

¹⁵Buck, p. 303.

control over denominational schools and of providing some amount of provincial aid to them. There are actually two school systems in Quebec and Newfoundland also has for the most part denominational schools. However, there is a certain amount of uniformity among most schools in the provinces. Teachers employed must be certified by the education department of the province in order that government aid may be received. There is compulsory attendance, and most school classes have similar courses of study which have been devised by the departments of education in the various provinces.

C. Land Grants before Confederation

Over one hundred years before confederation in Canada, and this dominion status was formed in 1867, the donating of land for education had been practiced. This land was a source of wealth at the time and also for the future. The same principle was followed in the United States before 1776.

In Nova Scotia in 1732 a town lot and a sufficient quantity of land was set aside for the school master and future school masters. In 1749 each school master who would immigrate into the country was to have a grant of one hundred acres of land for him and his descendants and other privileges. In 1766 the Legislature of Nova Scotia passed "An Act concerning Schools and Schoolmasters." By this act four hundred acres of land in each township was granted for the use and support of schools. Trustees were to be responsible for the best use of this land for education. In 1813 twenty thousand acres was granted to the governors, president, and fellows of King's College. In 1835 the Royal Society petitioned for land grants in Lower Canada and based its claim upon the fact that a college was chartered in Nova Scotia in 1803 and received twenty thousand acres of land and also other institutions in Nova Scotia had received

land grants that amounted to sixteen thousand acres.

In 1784 New Brunswick when separated from Nova Scotia was instructed by the Royal Commission to set aside two hundred acres near each town for a school master. The College at Fredericktown received a thousand pounds a year as revenue from the territory and was endowed with five thousand acres of land in addition to a valuable estate in Fredericktown. Also grants amounting to twenty thousand acres were made by 1835 for support of schools in this province.

In 1763 in Lower Canada (Quebec) land grants in aid of education for the purpose of Protestant schools to further the Protestant faith were given. Four hundred acres were allotted for a minister and two hundred for a school master. In 1774 the Jesuit Estates were ordered dissolved and for many years the question as to what was to be done with them was the cause of much dissention. In 1832 the Provincial Legislature enacted that the revenues and interest from these properties should be applied to education. In 1856 a Superior Education Fund was created which was to receive all the revenues from the Jesuit Estates. There was no mention made as yet as to whether this was to go to Protestant or Catholic institutions. Not until after Confederation were these specific revenues distributed between Catholic and Protestant educational institutions on a definitely specified basis. This was done on the basis of relative population. In 1801 "An Act for the Establishment of Free Schools and the Advancement of Learning in this Province" was passed. In the preamble to this act the King declared that part of the Crown lands would be used for the educational purposes that this society created by the act was to further. The society was called the Royal Institution for the Advancement of Learning. In 1803 a recommendation for the appropriation of Crown lands for supporting public schools and for the

endowment of a college was made. The King approved the appropriation of forty thousand acres for the establishment of a seminary in Quebec and one in Montreal. However, these land grants never came through.

There was difficulty in Quebec in carrying through the proposed "Royal Institution for the Advancement of Learning" supervision of education as the Catholic majority of people in the province wished to have the supervision of their schools under their own leaders. Therefore it was not possible to carry through with the original intention of the act that created the Royal Institution for the Advancement of Learning. It was not until 1813 that the Royal Institution was able to establish a college by means of the will of James McGill of Montreal which left them forty-six acres of land with the buildings thereon and ten thousand pounds in money.

Upper Canada (Ontario) had the association of education and religion so close in 1775 that any land grants set apart for churches and religious purposes were also for the school masters. This was true of the Catholic Church as well as the Church of England. In 1791 the Constitutional Act divided the colony into Upper and Lower Canada. There was provision for support of the Protestant Clergy. They were given land grants which were later known as "Clergy Reserves." In 1792 a proclamation specified that there was to be a reservation of one-seventh part of each township for the Protestant Clergy and one-seventh for the Crown. Eventually this land was returned to the municipalities in 1854 for secular purposes.

John Simcoe, who was the first Lieutenant Governor interested in education, provided by the Act of 1807 for the establishment of a school in each of the eight districts of the province. Although usually referred to as the Grammar

Schools Act, this Act formed the basis for secondary school education in Ontario through providing grants for education. In addition to this five hundred thousand acres of land was set apart at this time to provide a university at York (Toronto).

In 1816 the Common Schools Act was intended to provide throughout the Province of Ontario for common elementary schools. Six thousand pounds was appropriated to be divided throughout the province as directed by the Lieutenant Governor. A school house was to be erected for every community having twenty children or more, and three trustees were to be elected by the majority vote of the population. The grant was based on pupil attendance. When Upper and Lower Canada were united in 1841, the educational system was immediately revamped. Sales from public lands were used to provide funds for a permanent educational fund with an annual grant of two hundred fifty thousand dollars. Provision was made for minority religious groups to maintain and support their own schools. The Common School Act of 1843 provided for greater local autonomy of education than the previous act. It too allowed for separate schools of religious minorities. An Act of 1846 again provided for a greater central authority in the supervision of schools. In 1850 there was a choice allowed in the local communities as to whether they would pay rate bills or taxation. In 1870 fees and rate bills were done away with and schools became free, education was compulsory.¹⁶

The Common School Fund was created when Upper and Lower Canada were united. Specific provision was made in Section II which stated that in

¹⁶Bureau of Statistics, Organization and Administration, pp. 105-108.

Each and every Township and Parish in this Province, there shall be established a permanent fund which shall consist of all such monies as may accrue from the selling or leasing of any lands which, by the Legislature of this Province, or other competent authority, may hereafter be granted and set apart for the establishment, maintenance, and support of Common Schools in this Province, and of such other monies as are hereinafter mentioned; and all such monies as shall arise from the sale of any such lands or estates, and certain other monies hereinafter mentioned, shall be invested in safe and profitable securities in this Province; and the interest of all monies so invested, and the rents, issues and profits arising from such lands or estates as shall be leased or otherwise disposed of without alienation, shall be annually applied in the manner hereinafter provided, to the support and encouragement of Common Schools. Etc.¹⁷

An act passed in 1849 reserved one million acres of public land as school lands from which the Common School Fund was to be built up to give an annual income of one hundred thousand pounds. It was not practicable to build one unified system of education for the Province of Canada, as the newly united dominion was called. There was a majority of French Catholics in Lower Canada and of English speaking Protestants in Upper Canada who could not become reconciled under one educational system. Therefore there were two educational systems and therefore it followed that there were problems of financial support and control of these two systems. In 1859 an act was passed to take care of the dual division of funds from the Common School Fund. This act stated that the interest, which should be set at six per cent, of money invested from the sale of one million acres of public land when it reached four hundred thousand dollars per annum should form the Common School Fund. From this, two hundred thousand dollars were to be used for the schools and the remainder was to go to Her Majesty. Each year the amount reserved for education was to be divided

¹⁷ Miller, p. 59.

between Upper and Lower Canada in proportion to the population of these areas which was to be determined by a census.

D. Land Grants since Confederation

A new relationship was established between Upper and Lower Canada by the British North America Act of 1867.¹⁸ Upper Canada became the Province of Ontario, and Lower Canada became the Province of Quebec. Each of these provinces was equal in status in relationship to the Dominion of Canada. Therefore, it was necessary to protect "The Common School Fund" and to see that each province received its just share of this fund. A good part of the lands that had been set up for the Common School Fund were in the western part of Old Ontario. Ontario was to administer these land reserves in trust for the Provinces of Ontario, Quebec, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick.

In an address by the Chief Superintendent of Schools, E. Ryerson, he stated that the system of public elementary instruction was eclectic and taken from four different sources.¹⁹ Concerning the principle supporting schools the system of the State of Massachusetts was adopted. Schools were supported according to property and were free to all without distinction. There was not a uniform coercive law on this point, however, and this principle was not made by the requirements of a provincial statute but by the action of the inhabitants of each school municipality from year to year. In 1852 when this address

¹⁸Ibid., pp. 64-65.

¹⁹Upper Canada Department of Public Instruction, Annual Report of the Normal, Model and Common Schools in Upper Canada for the Year 1852 (Quebec, 1853), pp. 268-271.

was given in Upper Canada, the Chief Superintendent apportioned the school fund to the several municipalities throughout Upper Canada.

With the Confederation of Canada each of the provinces that joined the Union at that time received and enjoyed the benefits which came from the Crown lands within its territories but also had the responsibility of administering them. In 1872 an "Act Respecting the Public Lands of the Dominion" which was to apply exclusively to the lands included in Manitoba and the North-West Territories stated that each township was to be divided into thirty-six sections, each one mile square. Sections eleven and twenty-nine in each township was to be reserved as an endowment for purposes of education. If these lands were found to be occupied and improved already, an equivalent amount of equally good land was to be substituted.

In Vancouver Island in 1853 twenty-two hundred acres in Victoria were apportioned for the church and school. In 1870 in British Columbia the inspector general noted the benefits to be derived from school reserves as was done in the United States and in 1879 sections sixteen and twenty-seven of townships which were thereafter surveyed were set aside for the support of education. Estimates have been made of the amount of land in these school land reserves. In 1901 in a Memorandum for Supplementary Return to the Senate of Canada it was estimated that 2,277,900 acres were reserved for Manitoba, and in the area now included in Alberta and Saskatchewan approximately 19,200,000 acres were reserved. A later document published by the Dominion Government in 1913 showed Manitoba with 1,493,774 acres, Alberta with 3,240,348 acres, and Saskatchewan with 3,853,496 acres.²⁰

²⁰Phillips, pp. 240-241; Miller, pp. 90-91.

In 1927 in addition to the surface rights of the reserve school lands the mineral rights were also specified as being reserved for the support of schools. There was a feeling during this period that the western provinces had not been given as good an apportionment as the eastern provinces, since the eastern provinces had received land grants, and the western provinces had received cash subsidies. Although they received cash subsidies as a substitute for the income they would have received from Crown Lands within their boundaries, they felt deprived of their full income which their status in the Dominion entitled them to. There was agitation for the Dominion authorities to transfer public lands in these provinces to the administration of these provinces. Therefore, in 1928 the Dominion Government agreed that "The Province of Manitoba . . . be placed in a position of equality with the other provinces of Confederation with respect to the administration and control of its natural resources, as from its entrance into Confederation in 1870."²¹

Saskatchewan and Alberta were also provided for in 1929 and this was made effective by legislation in 1930. That portion of the school lands fund created under the Act to amend and consolidate the several Acts respecting Public Lands of the Dominion was transferred to the provinces. The funds were to be administered by the provinces for the support of schools which were organized and operated according to the laws of that particular province.

E. Education of the Indians

There are three significant phases which had appeared in relation to the

²¹Ibid., pp. 86-87.

education of the Indians by the time of Confederation.²² There is the actual work done in the schools which were closely associated or maintained by denominational churches, there is the association for the purposes of mutual cooperation of the Indian bands through their councils, and there is the financial aid and cooperation of the Government. Early in the nineteenth century governments gave financial aid to the Indians of their various provinces. In 1831 Prince Edward Island granted fifty pounds to provide primary books for the Indians in their dialect. In 1842 Nova Scotia commissioned a director for Indian affairs to negotiate with trustees of any school for the education of Indian children. Board and tuition were paid at the province's expense. A similar method of providing for the education of Indians in common schools was adopted by the government of Lower Canada. In Upper Canada Indian schools were to have grants paid to them by an Act in 1824. However, there is on record the statement of only two such grants having been made.

The Indians showed initiative in helping themselves in 1848. Some of the Indian tribes in Upper Canada agreed "to set apart for the purposes of education one quarter of the amount they received in commutation of their annual distribution of ammunition."²³ The funds so provided was used to operate the Alderville and Mount Elgin Boarding Schools and the payment was made according to the number of children attending per year.

Indian affairs were given prompt attention after confederation and were

²²Ibid., p. 273.

²³Ibid.

placed under the Secretary of State by the Dominion Parliament. Indian affairs were transferred to the new Department of the Interior in 1873. In 1876 the Indian Act indicated that Indians who attained the degree of Doctor of Medicine or any other degree from a university were to be enfranchised under this Act. The Indian Act of 1880 consolidated all previous rulings made in regard to the Indians. There were other amendments and changes to the Indian Act of 1880, but in 1894 an important amendment which provided for the compulsory attendance of Indian children in school and for industrial boarding schools to be established was passed. In it children of seven to sixteen years of age were the age group that had to attend. This same Act also indicated that no Protestant child should be placed in a Roman Catholic school, and no Roman Catholic child should be placed in a Protestant school.

In 1906 a similar type of act was passed in regard to the Indians. However, in 1914 part of an act which revised the 1906 Act in certain sections stated that the Governor in Council could establish an industrial school or boarding school for Indians or could arrange to enroll Indian children in any school where instruction and lodging were provided upon making an agreement with the managing supervisors of the school. In 1920 this was revised to read that the Governor in Council might establish day schools for Indian children in any Indian reserve or industrial or boarding schools for these children. In this Act Indian children from the age of seven to fifteen years who were physically able were required to attend one of these types of schools.

In 1930 the education of Indian youth was raised from the sixteenth to the eighteenth year in that a child reaching the age of sixteen years could be kept in school for another period of two years but no longer than the eighteenth

year. All responsibility for the education of Indian children is taken by the Department of Indian Affairs. Indian schools are not a part of the provincial school system but are visited by the provincial school inspectors when asked to do so by the Department of Indian Affairs. Money for the education of Indian children is provided by Parliamentary appropriation. The Indians do not need to pay for the cost of educating their children. Teachers provided for these children were to have the same qualifications as those used in the provincial schools.

In 1938 there were eighty-one residential schools connected with the various denominational churches. Forty-five were under the auspices of the Roman Catholic Church, twenty-one with the Church of England, thirteen with the United Church, and two with the Presbyterian Church. The day school buildings were given by the government to these Indian reserves. Several of the residential school buildings were owned by the churches. The Roman Catholic Church owned twenty, the Church of England owned six, and the United Church of Canada owned three. The remainder of the residential school buildings were owned and built by the Government. One hundred fifty dollars to two hundred fifty dollars per year was paid by the Dominion Government for each child according to the location of each school.

In a letter from the Superintendent of Welfare and Training of the Indian Affairs Branch of the Department of Mines and Resources, Ottawa it was stated that the Dominion Government wished to offer opportunity for the gifted and capable Indian youth.²⁴ In this letter dated 1937 a special fund of \$25,000 a

²⁴Ibid., p. 284.

year was given for these students to enable them to get a secondary and college education. There were about two hundred fifty students in the academies, technical schools, and secondary schools at this time and about twelve attending college. More Indian youth were capable of profiting by this opportunity but could not because of lack of appropriation. In 1936 there were about two hundred graduates of Indian elementary schools who were given grants to continue in high schools, universities, and business colleges. The student had to be physically fit to receive this kind of aid and certain standards had to be met in his studies for the grants to be continued.

Out of a total Indian population of 112,510 in 1934, Indians professing the following faiths were 29,238 Anglicans; 1,223 Baptists; 17,012 United Church; 1,000 Presbyterians; 57,833 Roman Catholics; 1,838 for other Christian Beliefs; and 4,366 Aboriginal Beliefs. The various denominational religious schools supported seventy-nine residential schools all together. Twenty of these belong to the Church of England, two to the Presbyterian Church, forty-four to the Roman Catholic Church, and thirteen to the United Church. There were 8,061 students attending these schools in 1936. In this same year there were 18,033 students in Indian schools but the average attendance was 13,849. The Dominion expenditure on Indian education increased from \$136,536 in 1911 to \$334,705 in 1937 for non-residential schools. Residential schools cost the Dominion Government \$372,862 in 1911 which increased to \$1,414,703 in 1937. Tuition and assistance to ex-pupils cost the Dominion Government \$11,798 in 1911 and \$26,449 in 1937. The total cost including non-residential schools, residential schools, tuition and assistance to ex-pupils, stationery, and departmental salaries to the Dominican Government was \$539,145 in 1911 which

increased to \$1,820,978 in 1937.²⁵

The education of Indians living on Indian reserves in any province or anywhere in the territories has been the responsibility of the Dominion Government since Confederation. There has been a trend in the direction of educating Indian children whenever possible in combination with other children. The Royal Commission on Education in Ontario recommended that the province should assume responsibility for the education of Indian children so that they may have equal educational opportunity with other children. The Indians have been encouraged to help assume responsibility for their schools and the instruction in them recently. Therefore, the Indian pattern of schools could more easily be changed to the public school pattern. However, there are difficulties for the Indians to surmount and a reluctance to discontinue the denominational church schools.²⁶

F. National Defense

Groups of boys who receive mental, physical, and moral training through military instruction are called the "Cadet Corps." Section 59 of the Militia Act sets up the rules for this organization. Boys over twelve years of age who attend school may be formed into Cadet Corps with the authority of the Minister, boys from fourteen to eighteen years of age are formed into senior Cadet Corps, and these Cadet Corps may be authorized by the Minister to drill for a period up to thirty days in each year. Cadet Corps may be formed by the schools in

²⁵Ibid., pp. 283-293.

²⁶Phillips, pp. 336-339.

the various provinces provided they get the sanction of the head of the Department of Education in the province concerned. It is also possible to form a Cadet Corps which is not connected with any school or school system but however it must be sponsored by a reliable person in the community.

A Cadet Committee is formed to supervise the activity of each school Cadet Corps. This Committee contains a school board member, the school principal, a military officer selected by the D.O.C. (District Officer Commanding), and the Cadet Corps Instructor who also serves as the Committee's Secretary. The school board member serves as Chairman of the Committee. This same type of Committee is formed when the Cadet Corps is not connected with any school. The function of the Cadet Committee is to see that the work of the Cadet Corps is integrated with that of the school in general, to control the expenditure of funds for the Cadet Corps no matter what the source, and to arrange for the instruction of officers and members of the Corps.

Summer camp experiences are provided for some local cadet units occasionally. The greater part of the expense involved in training and instructing the cadets which includes materials and equipment needed is paid for by the Department of National Defense. An exact accounting is kept of the expenditures including pay and allowances. Individuals working with these groups are likely to have some expense, and the local school authorities give assistance to the Corps in one way or another and usually provide accommodations.

The Cadet Corps dates from the period of the American Civil War and the Fenian raids. In 1865 West Canada through legislation provided grants of \$50.00 for military drill of school Cadet Corps. Ontario in 1898 voted a \$50.00 grant if there were a Corps with twenty-five Cadets. There was some opposition to

Cadet Corps in the period between the First and Second World Wars. In 1930 Manitoba's Department of Education attempted to discontinue Cadet Corps, and the Toronto School Board voted to discontinue these Cadet Corps in their schools in 1933. However, during World War II the Cadet Corps were reinstated all over Canada.²⁷

Lord Strathcona set up a trust in cooperation with the Dominion Government to encourage physical and military instruction below the college level in schools all over Canada. The capital of the trust was \$500,000. The income was to be used for the training aforementioned. The Government was to pay interest every half year at the rate of four per cent per year. This was initiated in 1910, and the administration of this trust continues to be with a board consisting of the Governor-General of Canada, the Prime Minister of Canada, the Minister of National Defense, and the Ministers of Education in the Provinces. The money was used chiefly to encourage teachers to take this type of training in order to derive maximum results from the fund. Nova Scotia required physical training certificates for the higher levels of teachers' licenses at the inception of the program. By the year 1913 teachers of the province that had received training under this trust numbered three thousand. Grants from the Departments of Militia and Defense gave \$1.00 per cadet in 1910 and \$1.00 per uniform in 1912.

The income of \$20,000 a year which this trust has provided has been used for awards to teachers who are proficient in physical education and cadet training as well as for the training of teachers. The allotment of the funds

²⁷Ibid., p. 344.

between the provinces was made proportionately to their population of school age pupils. The persons serving on the Executive Council receive no remuneration. There are local committees appointed by the Executive Council to regulate the conditions of the instruction to local situations.

The Dependents Education Committee in the Department of National Defense has a Director of Education who administers some sixty-five schools in Canada and fourteen in Europe. These schools provide educational facilities for the dependent children of service personnel. This Committee has complete control over these schools in Europe. In the Canadian schools of this type which are established at defense bases in Canada their jurisdiction is limited by the provincial authority to the payment of operating costs. Application for a school to be established where education facilities are not to be had for ten years or more children of members of the Armed Forces may be made. The Provincial Department of Education usually helps in sharing costs through provincial grants. The teachers are civilians.

There are three ways in which this schooling may be provided.²⁸ A public school or high school district may be formed with a school board or a dependents school committee with an official trustee. This is under the Department of Education and the Department provides inspection and other services. A second way of providing a school is to have a school on the station administered by the civilian authority nearby. The third method is to use civilian schools in the vicinity and pay non-resident school fees. The schools are operated as provincial schools using provincial curricula, and the teachers' contracts are

²⁸Bureau of Statistics, Organization and Administration, p. 230.

similar. Where public transportation may be obtained, the defense headquarters may make payment of any cost above \$3.00 per child per month. Another arrangement is to use service transportation if the approval of the commanding officer is obtained.

In 1876 the Royal Military College in Kingston, Ontario was established to provide for the training of officers. The Royal Military College Act of 1927 states, Section 3, that this college should provide training in all types of military tactics, engineering, and scientific knowledge which are necessary for qualifying officers. The number of cadets was fixed at two hundred in 1938 and are selected from the provinces in proportion to their population. The College Militaire Royal de Saint-Jean, and Royal Roads prepare cadets for the Royal Military College which offers upper year courses.

The Royal Canadian Air Force offers courses in military training in addition to specialized trades and technical training amounting to some eighty trades. A large part of the trades in technical training is offered by civilian organizations. However, there is also training provided by the Training Command which is advised by several directorates and an advisor from the Defense Research Board. There is also a Central Examination Board in charge of preparing and grading papers on some twenty-five hundred topics.

A special committee on personnel structure was appointed in 1956 to make recommendations which dealt with trade and types of training programs for the Royal Canadian Navy. This proposed trade structure has six functional groups which take care of forty-seven trades. The Army training program centers in Army Headquarters under the Director General of Military Training. Courses are given in schools and training centers outside the service when this is most

convenient. There are schools in the Royal Canadian Army for French and for English. There are schools of artillery, anti-aircraft, signals, military engineering, infantry training, medical and dental corps, electrical and mechanical engineering, military intelligence, atomic warfare, biological warfare, and chemical defensive warfare. Officers training is provided by Canadian Vocational Training Schools.

G. Vocational Education

The vocational training provided by employers and labor and the vocational training provided by local and provincial government were found inadequate and the Dominion Government found it necessary to step in in order to attain and maintain greater competence in vocational occupations.

Vocational guidance in Massachusetts and Wisconsin at the beginning of the twentieth century and other programs carried on in leading countries of Europe stimulated the movement in Canada.²⁹ The work of Sir William McDonald in introducing manual training, domestic science, and school gardening related the work of the school with that of the community.

The Royal Commission on Industrial and Technical Education was appointed upon the recommendation of the Minister of Labour by the Federal authorities in 1910. The Commission recommended that drawing, manual training, nature study, experimental science, and prevocational work should be taught in elementary schools. The Commission recommended that a fund should be created from which

²⁹Miller, p. 294.

the Federal Government would pay the provincial governments over a period of ten years for the teaching of these studies. It was recommended that this fund should receive at least \$350,000 a year for ten years from a Dominion Parliamentary Grant and should be distributed to each of the nine provinces on the basis of population. A province was not to receive more than seventy-five per cent of the cost of this program based on a fiscal accounting of the previous year. This did not include, however, the provision of buildings. The plan was never adopted by Parliament as the year following its issuance brought the beginning of World War I. Further consideration was not given to this proposal until after the War.

Canada was such an agricultural country that the need for the encouragement of agriculture prompted the Federal Government to act to encourage agricultural education without waiting for the report of the Commission on Industrial Training and Technical Education. The Agricultural Aid Act was passed in 1912 to provide for this problem until a more comprehensive policy could be adopted. This Act stated that the Governor in Council could grant to any province a subsidy such as might be voted by Parliament for that purpose. The Minister of Agriculture was to agree with the government of any province as to the terms and conditions of the grant. The appropriation of \$500,000 gave effect to the Act for the first year. The money was apportioned according to the latest census on population of the various provinces. It was not stipulated specifically that the money was to be spent for educational purposes but rather expenditures were worked out in agreements between the Dominion Minister of Agriculture and the provinces. However, most of this fund was spent in developing agricultural education. This pointed up the need for legislation to

further agricultural education.

The Agricultural Instruction Act of 1913 resulted after the repeal of the Agricultural Aid Act of 1912. The Act stated:

3. For the purpose of aiding and advancing the farming industry by instruction in agriculture, and for the purposes authorized by this Act, the following sums, aggregating ten million dollars, shall be appropriated and paid out of the Consolidated Revenue Fund of Canada during each fiscal year for the period of ten years. . . .

The grant for the first fiscal year ending March 31, 1914 was \$700,000, and for each succeeding year the amount was increased \$100,000 over the previous year so that the grant for the fiscal year ending March 31, 1923 amounted to \$1,600,000. Officers are appointed by the Minister of Agriculture for purposes of inspection and report to assist in carrying out the provisions of this Act.

As a result of World War I there were shortages in school buildings whereas the need for greater technical knowledge pointed up the need for more schooling. There were a greater proportion of youth who had to be kept in school a longer period of time in order to attain the vocational competence needed in a postwar society. The Dominion and the provincial governments both realized that they would have to provide financial aid for expanded vocational education. The Technical Education Act of 1919 passed by the Dominion Government and the passage of various provincial legislative acts which enabled the provinces to receive aid from the Federal Government were an outgrowth of this trend.³⁰

³⁰ Ibid., pp. 311-313.

To assist technical education in Canada this Act provided a total sum of \$10,000,000 which was to be paid from the Consolidated Revenue Fund of Canada. The Act was scheduled to provide \$700,000 for the year ending March 31, 1920 and increased \$100,000 each fiscal year until March 31, 1924 and then continued at the rate of \$1,100,000 each year until 1929. All appropriations given were to be used for technical education according to the agreements between the Minister of Labour and the government of each province. The provinces which received such aid had to report as to how the money was expended for technical education as described by the Act. The Minister of Labour was required to report annually on the work done in the provinces under the provisions of this Act, and he was to include in his report the information supplied to him by the various provinces.

A conference held by representatives of the Departments of Education of many of the provinces urged that the Dominion Government in cooperation with provincial governments set up a teacher training college for vocational education at a central point. This proposal was never adopted by the Government. Problems attendant on the proposal were the Constitutional limitations on the Dominion Government's relation to education and the difficulties of relations between provinces. For example, instruction in the college would have had to be bilingual in order that the Province of Quebec would not be denied its rights in the program.

The Technical Education Act of 1919 expired in 1929. At this time it was found that Ontario was the only province which in the ten year period covered by the Act had used to the fullest the appropriations granted. More than \$2,000,000 was found to have been unearned by the other provinces. In 1931 a

new Vocational Education Act was passed by the Dominion Parliament. In this Act \$750,000 per year was granted for fifteen years for appropriations to provincial governments for the purpose of vocational education. This sum was provided from the Consolidated Revenue Fund of Canada. The money was to be apportioned according to the latest population census taken of the provinces. Agreements between the Minister of Labour and the governments of the provinces were to be reached to determine the conditions upon which payment would depend. Unfortunately the Act of 1929 could not be put into service as an unemployment situation limited the funds available to the Dominion Government. However, the remainder of the funds which had not been distributed from the Act of 1919 were disbursed according to the agreements made under the provisions of the Act of 1919.

Another type of vocational education sponsored by the Dominion Government is a type of service relationship which comes mainly within the field of adult education. One form of Government assistance is that of direct money grants for the various flying clubs which have been organized since the end of World War I. Specific agreements are made with each flying club and grants to individual members, government loans, and gifts of aircraft are made. In the period from the fiscal year of 1928-29 to 1937-38, \$792,676.92 was provided for these Canadian Flying Clubs.

The Dominion Government operates schools of navigation in which persons are qualified for certificates of competency as Masters and Mates. Since the Canadian National Railways is owned and operated by the Dominion Government, it maintains an educational program for the training of railroad service employees. This is an example of the Dominion Government's interest in vocational education

for adults. Other examples would be that of the qualifying of personnel for Trans-Canada Airlines, the educational program of the Canadian Broadcasting Corporation, and the vocational training program for inmates of penitentiaries.

The Federal Government carries on vocational education by means of the Canadian Vocational Training Branch of the Department of Labour. The Vocational Training Co-ordination Act of 1942 provided the legislation for this program. The Act allows for cooperation between the Dominion and provincial governments, and the Minister of Labour may enter into agreements with the provinces to share the cost of vocational education on a fifty-fifty basis. Vocational training is provided for apprentices and supervisors to enable them to work in vital industries and defense, in conservation and the development of natural resources and any work conducive to the national interest. Under this Act and following legislation \$30,000,000 was made available to the provinces. This included \$10,000,000 for capital expenditures between 1945 and 1952. Maintenance and operating costs were granted another \$2,000,000. This was for vocational secondary schools.

H. Other Federal Activities

The Northwest Territories consist of that part of the mainland above sixty degrees North Latitude, except the Yukon Territory and parts of Quebec and Newfoundland, and also all islands except those within provincial boundaries. The Territorial Government provides for the education of white children and children of mixed parentage. The Dominion Government is responsible for the education of Indian children within the Territories and Eskimo children in the Territories and in Northern Quebec along the coastal areas. Seven types of schools are operated in the Territories: federal, public, residential mission schools,

mission day schools, separate schools, company schools, and part time schools. The Department of Northern Affairs and National Resources run the Federal schools. There are few schools in the Territories. There were thirty-nine Federal schools, fourteen of which were primarily for Eskimo children in the year 1958-59. There are also four residential schools and six hospital schools with Dominion grants. The Department has provided grants and other assistance for fifteen missionary part-time schools, and mission organizations have been assisted financially in the operation of school, hostels.

The Commissioner of the Northwest Territories may make regulations for (1) The organization, operation and discipline of schools; (2) The arrangements and order of school premises; (3) School equipment and furnishings; (4) Classification of schools and teachers; (5) Prescribing textbooks and apparatus and books for libraries; (6) Presenting duties and powers of inspectors and teachers; (7) Prescribing plans for the construction and furnishing of school houses; (8) Prescribing standards of instruction; and (9) Prescribing the length of the school year, hours of school, recesses, vacations and holidays.³¹

The Commissioner is empowered to establish new schools and arrange for the education of any youth in the Territories outside of the districts. Schools outside of school districts are operated by the Dominion Government but the Territorial Government compensates the Dominion Government for the cost of educating white children. Religious instruction may be given the last half

³¹Bureau of Statistics, Organization and Administration, p. 226.

hour of the school day, but children are not required to attend.

In the Yukon Territory the administration of education is under the ordinance of the Yukon Territory of 1950. A Superintendent of Schools appointed by the Commissioner of the Territory takes charge of all public and separate schools. The Indian Affairs Branch operates the Indian schools.

The Family Allowances Act passed in 1944 provides monthly allowances of \$5.00 to \$8.00 for every child under sixteen years of age. This allowance was cut off if school regulations were not followed, and therefore it had the effect of increasing attendance. As the birth rate increases, it becomes clear that the greater number of pupils will cost the taxpayer more than the \$173,000,000 spent in 1946. This act has remarkable implications for education.³²

In 1951 the Massey Commission recommended that the Federal Government provide \$7,100,000 as grants to universities in the provinces. The Massey Commission, which had been appointed in 1949, examined agencies and activities which "express national feeling, promote common understanding and add to the variety and richness of Canadian life, rural as well as urban."

The National Research Council began by surveying Canada's scientific resources in 1917. They have set up scholarships for post graduate students and grants to professors to motivate research in Canadian universities. By the time of the Second World War twenty-one laboratories had been established by the Council itself, located from Halifax to Vancouver. The objective of the Council is to develop high calibre scientists and engineers to meet the expanding needs of the country. In the year 1957-58 the Council provided

³²Phillips, p. 345.

\$3,600,000 for pure research in universities. This consisted of five hundred ten grants and three hundred five fellowships and scholarships. Over three thousand seven hundred scholarships have been granted to graduates of twenty-six Canadian universities between the years 1917 to 1958.

The Canadian Citizenship Branch of the Department of Citizenship and Immigration helps government and non-government agencies in the education of immigrants, in planning programs for the promotion of citizenship, and in providing materials to implement these programs. These programs give financial assistance to provincial governments to help meet the cost of citizenship and language classes giving free textbooks and assistance to groups active in providing citizenship instruction.

CHAPTER IV

THE PRESENT STATUS OF FEDERAL SUPPORT OF EDUCATION

IN THE UNITED STATES

A. Federal Programs of Education at All Levels

The Federal Government is concerned with education at all levels from kindergarten through elementary and secondary school and higher education. On the elementary level the Army service school system has some areas in which the Federal Government engages. Elementary schools may also receive financial aid from Federal funds for vocational training. Federal aid is also forthcoming through Public Laws 815 and 874 of the 81st Congress, 2d Session to provide financial aid for federally affected school districts. The District of Columbia also provides elementary education for children living in the District, through the Federal Government. Under the National Defense Education Act of 1958 elementary schools are given assistance. In addition to this there is the Department of Public Welfare, the Department of Correction, and the elementary education provided by the Public Health Service for some patients at the National Leprosarium at Carville, Louisiana.

On the level of secondary education there are many Federal activities. There is the program at the high school level for the Army service school system and also that given by the Armed Forces Institute. Dependents on overseas bases receive education through the Army, and the Reserve Officers Training Corps operates on a secondary school level. Some of the inservice

training of Armed Forces personnel is at the level of secondary education. The Immigration and Naturalization Service of the Department of Justice is concerned with citizenship training and much of it is done in cooperation with elementary and high schools in various localities. The Bureau of Prisons also provides education for its inmates in Federal prisons on a high school level. The Bureau of Indian Affairs provides education for Indians for both an elementary and secondary level. There are various apprentice training programs assisted by Federal funds.

The Department of Agriculture carries out educational programs mainly at the level of the secondary school in which demonstrations and instruction in this field are given. Research carried out by this Department and its agencies is utilized in the high school. Elementary and high schools receive subsidies in the form of food and funds for their lunchrooms from the Federal Government.

The Federal-State program of vocational education is conducted in the greater part in the high schools. High Schools also profit from the National Defense Education Act of 1958 and from the aid administered by the Office of Education to federally affected school districts. The vocational high schools are used by state agencies for vocational rehabilitation programs and receive Federal financial aid. State and local personnel are trained in public health on the secondary level with Federal aid. The Veterans' Administration provides educational benefits for disabled veterans in high schools throughout the country. The Department of Health, Education, and Welfare and the General Services Administration have distributed surplus property to high schools. Also, the District of Columbia provides secondary school education for the inhabitants of this area.

The greater part of Federal activity in higher education is with the training of military personnel and civilian employees. While some of these programs could not be labeled definitely higher education they do require a background of secondary school education. Some types of training at the level of post-secondary education is the technical training given by the United States Coast Guard, the United States Army Information School, the training of civilians by the Navy, the technical training for enlisted personnel of the Marine Corps, and the apprentice and inservice training of civilian employees in addition to the technical training program of the Air Force.

The Federal Bureau of Investigation and the Border Control Academy of Immigration and Naturalization Service offer postsecondary education. Postsecondary courses are given in Federal schools for the Indians. The Department of Agriculture trains employees at this level and also gives instruction in cooperative education extension courses. The Veterans' Administration, the International Cooperation Administration, the Federal Civil Defense Administration and the National Aeronautics and Space Administration offer courses at the postsecondary level.

Federal educational activities are carried on mainly at the higher level using the facilities of various colleges and universities. Military personnel are trained at these institutions, and research programs are carried on under the auspices of the Federal Government at this level. There are also Federal institutions operated by the government that offer types of specialized higher education. The following programs are concerned with institutions or education at a higher level and will serve as examples of this type. The Armed Forces utilize the United States Coast Guard Academy, the Industrial College of the

Armed Forces, the National War College, the Military Academy at West Point, the United States Naval School of Aviation Medicine, the Naval Academy at Annapolis, the Naval War College, and others. In addition to this there are the training courses given by the Federal Bureau of Investigation, the Fish and Wildlife Service, the Atomic Energy Commission, and the Public Health Service. A teachers college is operated by the Board of Education of the District of Columbia, and the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare administers appropriations for the land-grant colleges. This department, also, cooperates with the states in vocational rehabilitation and teacher training for vocational instruction and cooperates with the Department of State in the international exchange of teachers.

B. Programs of the Department of State

1. International Educational Exchange Program¹

In 1936 the Educational Exchange Program was initiated. The Convention for the Promotion of Inter-American Cultural Relations sponsored this program which was later ratified by sixteen American Republics. The program was enlarged to include exchange of specialists, teachers, professors, students, and government and industry personnel under the Act for cooperation with the other American Republics. This educational exchange program was expanded further in World War II under the Emergency Fund for the President which sponsored two

¹U. S. Department of State, 22d Semiannual Report to Congress: International Educational Exchange Program, July 1 - December 31, 1958, Publication 6893, International Information and Cultural Series 71 (Washington, 1959), pp. 1-14; U. S. Department of State, 23rd Semiannual Report to Congress: International Educational Exchange Program, January 1 - June 30, 1959, Publication 7001, International Information and Cultural Series 72 (Washington, 1960), pp. 1-49.

emergency programs. The Secretary of State was authorized under the Fulbright Act of 1946 to negotiate agreements for educational exchanges. This was financed from the sale of surplus property and with foreign currencies. There have been forty agreements made under this Act, and thirty-two countries have made exchanges for the purpose of study, research, and teaching. Foreign persons are also authorized under this Act to study in schools in the United States. The Board of Foreign Scholarships has the responsibility of determining which persons and institutions are qualified to benefit under the Fulbright Act. This is a public board appointed by the President.

The basis for a world-wide exchange of educational personnel was furnished by the Smith-Mundt Act of 1948. Intellectual leaders, specialists, lecturers, students, and teachers are exchanged with about one hundred countries. In addition to this, American demonstration schools abroad are given assistance under this Act. The Fulbright Act, Public Law 584, 79th Congress and the Smith-Mundt Act, Public Law 402, 80th Congress showed the following amounts as having been dispersed under their authority. 1954-55, \$19,259,133; 1955-56, \$18,600,294; 1956-57, \$18,231,076; 1957-58, \$20,925,233.

The Economic Cooperation Administration provided funds to aid Chinese Students studying in the United States who had been cut off from their source of income by the fall of Nationalist China. This program was initiated in 1949 and discontinued in 1955 after 3,641 Chinese students had received this type of financial aid. The Acts authorizing this were Public Law 327 and Public Law 535, both passed in the 81st Congress.

Public Law 265, 81st Congress provided for Finnish exchange students, teachers, lecturers, and specialists to come to the United States to study and

for American students to be sent to Finland. This program, which was begun in 1949, was financed from the Finnish war loan funds which that country paid to the United States for its debt incurred in World War I.

Congress authorized the interest from the first \$5,000,000 loaned to India to be used for educational purposes with exchange students. This law was passed in 1951, Public Law 48, 82nd Congress, and the money loaned to India was to purchase wheat from the United States. Research materials, laboratory

TABLE I
FEDERAL FUNDS ALLOTTED FOR EDUCATIONAL EXCHANGE
PROGRAMS: 1954-55 TO 1957-58

Program	1954-55	1955-56	1956-57	1957-58
Fulbright and Smith-Mundt	\$19,259,133	\$18,600,294	\$18,231,076	\$20,925,233
Chinese and Korean	282,117	113,963	0	0
Finnish	213,234	290,329	165,367	270,546
Indian	8,190	79,223	193,770	205,974
Iranian	5,561	0	14,135	71
Southeast Asia and Western Pacific, Executive, 1955	0	1,200,000	0	0
Total	\$19,768,235	\$20,283,809	\$18,604,618	\$21,401,824

TABLE II
 NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS ENGAGED IN EDUCATIONAL
 EXCHANGE PROGRAMS: 1957-58³

Participants	Other American Republics	Europe	Near East and Africa	Far East	Total
From the U. S.	138	1,334	253	228	1,953
Students	33	799	25	48	905
Teachers	2	240	56	47	345
Lecturers, re- search scholars	52	240	104	99	495
Leaders, spe- cialists	51	55	68	34	208
From other countries	590	1,966	721	881	4,158
Students	164	890	298	377	1,729
Teachers	103	277	71	80	531
Lecturers, re- search scholars	11	312	55	101	479
Leaders, spe- cialists	312	487	297	323	1,419
Total	728	3,300	974	1,109	6,111

³Ibid., p. 152.

and technical equipment were also exchanged under this program. In the year 1957-58, \$205,974 was provided by the United States to finance the exchange of students and to implement this program between the two countries. Scholarship exchange of Irish students with the United States was financed by 500,000 Irish pounds which Congress authorized for this purpose in 1954.

The Agricultural Trade Development and Assistance Act of 1954 provided for the use of funds derived from the sale of surplus agricultural commodities abroad. These funds were to be used for student educational exchange programs. The Department of State in 1959 contracted to allow specialists from foreign countries to exchange information and contribute to American knowledge with twenty-one American educational institutions participating in this program. Grants were received by 7,754 persons and 100 countries and dependent areas were implicated in the program.

2. Exchange Program with Soviet Bloc Countries

To provide mutual understanding between the people of the United States and those countries of the Soviet bloc, Poland, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Rumania, and the Soviet Union made provision for reciprocal exchanges in the technical, cultural, and educational fields. This was part of the policy of the United States to encourage friendly relations between this country and the Eastern European countries and was voiced in a statement by the President on June 29, 1956. The President based this statement on the seventeen point program given by the Western Foreign Ministers in Geneva, 1955.

Exchanges which resulted from this agreement included twenty-two American graduate students who studied in the Soviet Union and seventeen Soviet students who came to the United States. Other types of cultural and educational

exchange included groups of artists, musicians, writers, educators, film personalities, and television and radio programs were also presented. The United States National Academy of Sciences and the Soviet Academy of Sciences have worked out an agreement whereby there will be an exchange of personnel on a scientific level in ten different fields. There is no separate budget for these exchanges, and those projects which are not sponsored by agencies outside of the government are assisted by the International Educational Exchange or the President's Special International Program for Cultural Presentations. These two Acts are Public Law 402, 80th Congress: and Public Law 860, 84th Congress.

In these programs education has been studied on all levels, but the persons involved have been university students, professors, or specialists. During 1958, one hundred thirty-five projects were carried on by Soviet bloc countries visitors to the United States and one hundred twenty-seven projects involved United States citizens in these foreign countries.

3. International Cooperation Administration⁴

The International Cooperation Administration is a semi-autonomous organization which the Department of State established in 1955, under the Executive Order 10610, to coordinate mutual assistance and security programs. Its function is to strengthen technical cooperation, many of which are closely

⁴U. S. Department of State, Mutual Security Program for the First Half of Fiscal Year 1959 (Washington, 1959), pp. iii-64; U. S. Department of State, Mutual Security Program for the Second Half of Fiscal Year 1959 (Washington, 1959), pp. iii-64.

related to educational processes, and are dependent on educational processes for their implementation. Human resources, as a nation's most valuable resource, rely on education to promote such activities as to improve conditions in agriculture, health, industry, and government.⁵ The ICA and the United Nations function as agencies to help less favored nations improve their potential for helping themselves.

These under-developed nations need assistance in two areas from the United States. They need help in developing programs to teach the actual technical knowledge for the solution of economic and social problems, and they need help in stamping out illiteracy by means of trained teachers, schools and teaching materials.⁶ The ICA develops its educational program in relation to the culture, tradition, and institutions of the countries in which it is working. Its purpose is to develop persons who are trained to teach others rather than to engage in teaching the masses of the people. Demonstration schools may be held but these would be more in the line of teacher training projects. The ICA programs seek to enable the people of the country in which they are working to help themselves. It is a teaching program rather than to help the people with materials, supplies, or buildings. However, this latter type of assistance was given to Korea to aid in reconstruction. Persons are selected to come to the United States to learn to be specialists who can go back and aid their country. The American University of Beirut is an example of a university that offers training in specialized fields to these nationals. The United States Office of

⁵Federal Funds for Education, p. 154.

⁶Ibid.

Education gives assistance to persons wishing to study in this country and helps them to arrange their program.

The method of administering the ICA Training Program is based on agreements under which the United States provides assistance for the cooperating country under the authority of the Mutual Security Act of 1954 as amended (22 U.S.C. 1892). The cooperating country has certain responsibilities in sharing the cost of the program and in the use that is made of the assistance given. Separate programs are worked out under the basic agreements as to the length of time to be given to the specific program and financial and other arrangements. The ICA acts as an agent to screen any person or persons recommended by a cooperating country and to decide where the person is to receive his training which may be in the United States or any other country. Occasionally the training is given by the ICA, but in most cases other agencies are contracted with, either public or private, and agencies as the Department of Agriculture, Department of Commerce, the Department of Health, Education and Welfare, the Department of the Interior, the Department of Labor, and the Department of Defense, or the Home Finance Agency or other bureaus may be used as the need directs. The individual's training is based on the needs of his country in relation to his own qualifications.⁷ Approximately \$25,000,000 was spent on participant training for this program during the fiscal year 1959.

⁷Charles A. Quattlebaum, Federal Educational Policies, Programs and Proposals: Part III: Analysis and Classification of the Program, Library of Congress, The Legislative Reference Service (Washington, 1960), p. 35.

Contracts are made with colleges and universities in the United States and Federal funds are used to obtain the services of these universities to aid institutions of higher learning in foreign countries with the improvement of their curriculum, research, extension work, and teaching. American universities enter into contracts with universities and colleges abroad under the sponsorship of the Federal Government. In 1957 seventy-nine contracts between universities were in force, and American professors from fifty-six universities were working in foreign universities of about thirty-eight countries. The American professor works with a professor in a foreign university who then comes to the United States to study for a year. About six hundred American professors and about three hundred professors from foreign countries were working on an exchange basis in December, 1957. Quattlebaum⁸ states that, "As of June 30, 1959, the value of all ICA university contracts in operation was \$86,370,000 while obligations were \$78,128,000. Funding of contracts is peculiar in that they are usually funded for more than one year at a time. Administrative obligations not determinable." The total actual or estimated obligation reported by the Department of State for educational activities for the fiscal year of 1959 was \$171,771,168.

C. Programs of the Department of the Treasury⁹

The program of the Department of the Treasury is mentioned cursorily as it

⁸Charles A. Quattlebaum, Federal Educational Policies, Programs and Proposals: Part II: Survey of Federal Educational Activities, Library of Congress, The Legislative Reference Service (Washington, 1960), p. 16.

⁹U. S. Department of the Treasury, Annual Report of the Secretary of the Treasury on the State of the Finances for the Fiscal Year Ended June 30, 1959, Document 3215 (Washington, 1960), pp. xvi-750.

does not lie within the scope of this study. This Department has educational activities in training personnel for duties with the Coast Guard, the Internal Revenue Service, and the Bureau of Customs. It also operates a formal in-service training program in all of its bureaus to encourage the technical, managerial, and executive development of various employees. Certain colleges and universities are used by the Department for the education of selected persons. In addition, formal schools such as the United States Coast Guard Academy and the United States Customs In-Service Training School function for the Department. This program obligated the Treasury Department to the extent of \$26,953,272 for the fiscal year 1959.

D. Programs of the Department of Defense¹⁰

1. Survey of Armed Forces Programs

There are three colleges and two institutes serving all branches of the Armed Forces. These are operated by the Department of Defense and include the National War College, the Industrial College of the Armed Forces, the Armed Forces Staff College, the Department of Defense Military Assistance Institute, and the Armed Forces Institute. The Office of the Secretary of Defense and Joint Chiefs of Staff are associated with these institutions. This educational program for the fiscal year of 1959 cost the Department of Defense, Office of the Secretary \$3,240,884 for the USAFI alone.

¹⁰U. S. Department of Defense, Annual Report of the Secretary of Defense and the Annual Reports of the Secretary of the Army, Secretary of the Navy, Secretary of the Air Force: July 1, 1958, to June 30, 1959 (Washington, 1960) pp. vi-410.

The Army's educational programs which are particularly prominent are those administered by the Office of Deputy Chief of Staff for Military Operations. Included among these are the Military Academy at West Point, the Army Service school system, the Reserve Officers Training Corps program, the Army extension course program, and the training activities connected with military personnel in civilian institutions and connected with military assistance to other countries. The Department of the Army is concerned with other educational programs as training of civilian employees, that research which is carried on under contract with various educational institutions, the education of military and civilian personnel dependents, educational activities engaged in to raise the academic level of Army personnel, foreign area specialist training, and the operation of the United States Army Information School. The actual or estimated obligation of these programs as reported by the Department of the Army was \$309,272,000 for the fiscal year 1959.

Programs for training both civilian and enlisted naval personnel to enable them to become commissioned officers are carried on by the Department of the Navy. This program functions at the Naval Academy at Annapolis and other institutions of higher learning. Naval personnel are also enabled to study through correspondence courses which though coming from the United States Armed Forces Institute and the Marine Corps Institute are sponsored by the Navy. The education of school age dependents of Navy personnel and their transportation by bus when necessary is provided for in certain localities. The Navy also educates natives on certain Pacific islands. The Navy arranges for various educational institutions to carry on scientific research on naval problems and needs. The Navy also operates naval air technical training schools, The United

States Naval School of Aviation Medicine, the Naval War College, the Marine Corps Institute, the Marine Corps officers schools, the Industrial Relations Institute, and special officers schools. The actual or estimated cost of these operations for 1959 was \$482,208,990.

Nine educational programs are administered by the Air Force Directorate of Personnel Procurement and Training. Technical specialized and flying training are included in these programs, also medical training and the Air Force Institute of Technology, the Air Force Academy, and Extension Course Institute are all part of these programs. Apprentice training, graduate study, fellowships, scientific and technical courses, and other educational activities are provided by the Directorate of Civilian Personnel for certain civilian employees. As is seen with other branches of the Armed Forces, education for dependents of military and civilian personnel overseas on a primary and secondary level is provided by the Air Force. Also, research contracts with educational institutions and an academic and vocational educational services program for military are carried on. This is reported as costing \$370,208,990 for the fiscal year of 1959.

2. United States Armed Forces Institute

The United States Armed Forces Institute is generally known as USAFI and has as its objective the provision of educational materials and services for members of the Armed Forces on active duty. USAFI is a field activity of the Office of Armed Forces Information and Education and is chartered by the Secretary of Defense. This is a voluntary education program, and although used exclusively by the Armed forces, it is basically a civilian-type of education. There is a USAFI center at Madison, Wisconsin and five other centers

in Hawaii, Alaska, Japan, Europe, and the Caribbean. They are all operated in the same manner, but the USAFI programs overseas are under the command of the theater officers.

The War Department on December 24, 1941, authorized the establishment of an Army institute to enable enlisted members of the Army to obtain a general education. At Madison, Wisconsin on April 1, 1942, the Institute began its program offering sixty-four correspondence courses at the secondary and junior college levels. The Institute later extended its program to include hundreds of courses given through cooperating colleges and universities under contract with the Government. In September, 1942 the opportunity of participating in these courses was given to the personnel of the Navy, Coast Guard, and Marine Corps. In July of 1943 commissioned personnel were also given the opportunity of participating in this educational program. USAFI was established in 1946 as a permanent educational program and in 1949 as a field activity under the Armed Forces Information and Education Division of the Office of the Assistant Secretary of Defense with a civilian director.

The courses offered by USAFI range from the elementary level through the first two years of college. They are correspondence courses and the student submits lessons and must take a test at the end of the course. Upon first enrolling in USAFI the student pays an enrollment fee of \$2.00 but pays nothing more after that. The Government pays the cost of the lesson service to the colleges and universities throughout the United States that have contracts with USAFI. The program increased to 351 courses offered in 1952 but has decreased to 211 courses at present. Of these courses sixty-six are on a college level, forty-nine of a high school level, and thirty-seven on a vocational technical

level. There are also forty-four spoken language courses and on the elementary level through the eighth grade fifteen courses are offered. In addition to these courses offered by USAFI there are over six thousand correspondence courses offered through forty-four colleges and universities under the auspices of USAFI.

The testing program is a salient feature of USAFI. There are four kinds of tests, the end-of-course type, subject matter type, General Educational Development, and USAFI Achievement Tests. The subject matter tests serve the purpose of counseling the student as to what type of course and what level he is prepared to take. The tests of General Educational Development cover the high school and the first year of college level. Grade level placement of military personnel is determined by USAFI Achievement Tests II and III. A survey¹¹ has shown that of fifteen hundred colleges and universities, eighty-four per cent admit service personnel to freshman standing if they have passed the high school GED, forty-seven per cent give advanced standing credit, and seventy-nine per cent give credit for completion of USAFI courses. The obligations of this Institute for the year 1959 totaled \$3,240,884.

3. Army Reserve Officers' Training Corps¹²

The ROTC conducts basic military training, stimulates interest in military careers, develops an appreciation of the Army as a service, conducts

¹¹Quattlebaum II, p. 27.

¹²U. S. Department of Defense, Annual Report, p. 161.

precommissioning, and aids the student to achieve maturity. ROTC units are maintained at selected universities, military junior colleges specifically designated by the Secretary of the Army, and at high schools and other comparable educational institutions which are not operated on an essentially military basis. Although the Government does not provide students in ROTC with tuition or make monetary reimbursements or allotments to participating institutions, the Army furnished the instructors, equipment, uniforms, and texts used by the ROTC. The institutions furnish facilities, such as classrooms and storage space. Students who are formally enrolled in the advanced course senior division receive a monetary ration allowance and a travel allowance to and from camp. They are given pay equal to that of the basic soldiers while they are at camp.

The General Military Science Program or GMS has as its objective the development of junior officers with the basic training necessary to officers of all branches of the United States Army. Flight instruction is authorized for second year advanced course senior division cadets. The Army pays for the flight instruction which is given by civilian schools which have been approved. At the beginning of the school year 1958-59 ninety-two junior division units were operating in 259 secondary schools, forty-one military school division units in forty-one institutions were in progress, and 234 senior division units were in 249 institutions. Some institutions provide a three year program of instruction in military fundamentals prescribed by the Secretary of the Army. A fourth year of instruction may be provided on a voluntary basis if the institution so desires. These institutions operate under the National Defense Cadet Corps, NDCC. There were sixty-three NDCC units in seventy-nine schools during the

school year 1958-59.

The legal authorization for the Reserve Officers' Training Corps program is the National Defense Act as amended. The estimated obligations for the fiscal year 1959 was \$15,672,000.

4. Training of Army Personnel in Civilian Institutions

In 1920 Congress authorized the Secretary of War to utilize two per cent of officer and enlisted personnel of the Army to attend educational institutions, industrial plants, and other suitable places to enable them to become specialists in fields necessary to the Army. The two per cent quota was changed during World War II, and in 1958 up to eight per cent of the Army's officers and two per cent of enlisted personnel were trained for these specialized areas at civilian institutions.

The Deputy Chief of Staff for Military Operations now supervises this training program. Designated Army training agencies select courses in schools appropriate to the positions that need to be filled. The Adjutant General contracts with the various educational institutions through officers in the Army and arranges for matriculation and education of selected students. The education given is principally on the college graduate level. This operation is carried on in the United States as well as in several foreign countries. It is operated for the benefit of the Department of the Army. Officers receiving instruction during the fiscal year of 1959 numbered 1,714. Training is given in engineering, the social sciences, management and administration, the professions, language, and the physical sciences. Immediately after having received training in these areas, officers usually serve three years in positions requiring their use. The National Defense Act, as amended provides

for this education and \$4,289,200 was reported as the cost of this program for the fiscal year 1959.

5. Army Foreign Area Specialist Training

The Army has a training program to qualify selected officers on a high level of command for assignments in foreign areas. Originally this program provided for language training in Chinese, Japanese, and Russian with a four year course of study. One or two years of the study were to be spent in the United States and two or three years in the foreign nation being studied. This program was instigated in 1945 and in 1947 was expanded to include Arabic, Turkish, Persian, and Modern Greek. In 1953 Hindi and Urdu were added. The students in this program are connected with the appropriate military attache offices in the country in question for the last two or three years of their study. The one exception is that of the Russian overseas instruction which is operated by Headquarters United States Army, Europe. Appropriation for this is from the National Defense Act, as amended and is estimated at \$77,749 for the fiscal year 1959.

6. Education and Training of Armed Forces Civilian Employees

The Army has need of a permanent group of skilled civilian employees and has several programs distributed throughout the Army for this purpose. Civilian employees have been trained in non-government facilities mainly in engineering and scientific fields and in special technical seminars on the college level. Also there are training programs to educate in job skills and apprentice training to improve manipulative skills and to provide the Army with sufficient journeymen workers for current and future needs. The estimated cost for this

program was \$878,000 for the fiscal year 1959.

The Navy has its training program for civilian personnel including a large variety of skills and abilities. Some of these are special courses in the communicative skills, supervisory training, clerical skills, and orientation courses for new employees. In addition to this courses are developed as the need arises in some specialized fields of professional, managerial, and technical personnel. The Navy Department has expanded its in-service training for civilian personnel since 1949 to include developmental programs which cover all classes of administrative work. Since 1950 the Navy Department has sent interested employees to local colleges and universities for courses in engineering, administration, comptrollership, personnel administration, and governmental administration. These classes are usually given after the hours of employment have been concluded and most of the training is taken at the employee's own expense as well as on his own time. Classes which contribute to efficiency on the job are authorized to have tuition paid by the Navy.

In 1945 the Navy established a plan for the development of civilian personnel to include both departmental and field civilian employees. This is operated under the Chief of Industrial Relations. Programs range from those carried on at educational institutions on the employees own time to those training courses in the production environment during working hours. Facilities other than those of the Government may be used when local facilities or Federal agencies are unable to meet the needs of the particular situation. These Naval programs for civilian personnel are authorized under the Government Employees Training Act of 1958 and the annual appropriation act. The cost of this program for the fiscal year of 1959 was in excess of \$421,037.

To enable employees in the civilian classification of the United States Air Force to keep up with current developments in their fields of employment, courses are given at educational institutions. The institutions usually participating give courses on professional subjects as automation, parachute engineering, and dynamics of flight. The authorization for this is the annual appropriation act and the expense to the Government for the fiscal year 1959 is \$698,060. The duration of these specialized scientific courses is usually two weeks.

Another program of graduate study for civilian employees provides a large part of the training during off-duty hours in courses conducted once or twice weekly on an academic semester or quarter basis. The purpose is to raise the level of performance of Air Force employees and keep them abreast of current developments in their fields. The authorization is the annual appropriation act and the cost for the fiscal year 1959 was \$297,315.55.

The Air Force has a program of graduate study and research for civilian employees which is held on a long-term, full-time basis. In addition to the purposes of the previous programs this program also provides for special types of study and research for the Air Force. The authorization is the annual appropriation act and the cost for the fiscal year 1959 is \$79,192.50 for tuition. A similar program with the purpose of educating Air Force civilian personnel in executive duties in management is used as a supplement to the in-service management training provided by the Air Force. This is utilized only when the needs of the Air Force may be met in no other way. Contracts are made with educational institutions under the annual appropriation act and the cost for the fiscal year 1959 was \$322,441.50.

There are fellowships available for civilian employees of the Air Force to aid in their development and to promulgate research. Since 1954 the Air Force has participated in this program and the cost is usually that of the salaries of the personnel being given training. For this program the Air Force participates in the Rockefeller Public Service Awards program, American Management Association Alumni Scholarship, and the National Science Foundation fellowships.

7. Education of Dependents of Armed Forces Personnel

Beginning in the fiscal year of 1948 the Army has had a program for the education of its school age dependents of military and civilian personnel, both overseas and on Federal property located in the United States and territories and possessions. In 1948 \$1,900,000 was spent on this program which provided for approximately 15,500 school age dependents. This education is provided for grades one through twelve and kindergartens are sometimes operated but not through these appropriated funds. This program is still carried on by the Army in overseas stations but is operated by the United States Office of Education in continental United States, territories, and possessions. The authority for this program for the overseas area is Public Law 724, 85th Congress and Public Law 766, 85th Congress. The operating cost for the fiscal year 1959 was approximately \$13,500,000.

The Marine Corps and the Navy have a program for the education of dependent children of their personnel. Elementary and secondary school facilities are offered and the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare operates this activity for personnel living on Federal property or in continental United States and most of its possessions and territories. The

authorization for the Marine Corps is from Public Laws 815 and 874 of the 81st Congress, and the Navy program comes under Public Law 604 of the 79th Congress and the annual Department of Defense appropriation act. The cost of the Marine Corps program was \$1,213,000 for the fiscal year of 1959 and of the Navy program for the same period was \$186,214. The first figure is the cost to the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, and the second figure is the cost to the Navy per se.

The Air Force has its program of primary and secondary education for the dependents of its military and civilian personnel. Where possible in the United States dependents attend local public schools. Otherwise the Air Force operates schools on Federal property as an agent for the United States Office of Education. The Air Force effects contracts with school boards when tuition payments are required. High schools are operated by the Air Force and have been accredited in the United States. Correspondence courses are used for localities overseas when the school population makes operation of a school unfeasible due to low membership. The authorization for this comes under the annual Department of Defense appropriations act and the cost for the fiscal year of 1959 was \$11,602,039.

8. Medical Training in the Navy

A post graduate course of medical training was set up in 1945 for officers in the Medical Department to attend civilian schools. Since 1955 when selected enlisted personnel were allowed to participate in this program great impetus has been given it. Aviation medicine, submarine medicine, amphibious and field medicine, and other post graduate training is offered in Civilian universities. Training is given on a long term basis, and there are

also short postgraduate and refresher courses. Nurse Corps officers are able to take advanced training in specialized fields of nursing.

The Navy has a school of aviation medicine which trains flight surgeons, aviation medicine technicians, and medical allied scientists in aviation medicine. On the job training of research scientists in the field of aviation medicine is part of the program offered and is a continuous project. Another program of the Navy is that of the training of medical internes in naval hospitals initiated in 1923 and then of dental internes in 1948. The funds which are given to this program are used wholly for the payment of civilian consultants who contribute to this program. Authorization for these programs are from the annual appropriation act with the exception of the United States Naval School of Aviation Medicine which has legal authorization implemented by Secretary of the Navy directives. The total appropriation is \$3,389,838 for the fiscal year 1959.

9. Medical Education and Research in the Air Corps

The United States Air Force School of Aviation Medicine originated in 1917 and various units were established to train personnel in aviation medicine and other specialized fields and also in aviation medicine research. The Air Force also utilizes training facilities of the Army and Navy where these are suitable. Air Force hospitals have certain specially designed courses. The annual appropriation act gives legal authorization and \$5,341,469 was spent on this for the fiscal year of 1959.

TABLE III

FEDERAL FUNDS FOR THE EDUCATION OF CHILDREN OF ARMED FORCES
PERSONNEL AND CIVILIAN EMPLOYEES IN OVERSEAS AREAS¹³

1957-58

Ser- vice	Total amount expended	Education through Armed Forces operated schools			Education through other Service operated schools, contract schools, or home-study courses	
		Amount expended	No. of pupils	No. of schools	Amount expended	No. of pupils
Army	\$12,749,000	\$10,466,900	41,936	114	\$2,282,100	7,304
Navy	2,733,537	1,889,683	7,233	21	843,854	3,360
Air Force	11,856,733	9,068,018	39,752	93	2,788,715	10,485
Total	27,339,270	21,444,601	88,921	258	5,914,669	21,149

¹³ Federal Funds for Education, pp. 111-114.

10. Information and Education Program for Naval Personnel

Commanding officers in the Navy supply opportunities for naval personnel to receive instruction which would normally be available to them in civilian academic institutions. This instruction is supplied through correspondence courses, textbooks, and extension testing service to men on ships or oversea stations. Approximately fifty thousand Navy personnel took advantage of this opportunity in the fiscal year of 1959 with a cost of \$160,000 under the authorization of "BuPers Manual", article D-2103. The United States Armed Forces Institute provides the major part of the materials and services at present.

11. Information and Education Program for Air Force Personnel

Air Force military personnel who wish educational opportunities during off duty time in order to complete requirements at various levels of education or to effect general improvement in their education in terms of career fields may have access to civilian school classes for this purpose. Academic and vocational education is provided through group study classes, civilian school classes on base or at nearby campuses, and correspondence courses. The annual appropriation act provides the legal authority for this program. In the fiscal year 1959 \$3,230,771 was spent.

Air Force research and development through contracts with educational institutions provides for development and research in specialized fields of interest to the air force. The program is divided into basic areas of interest which propose to provide the Air Force with technical capability. Public Law 604 of the 81st Congress and \$68,439,852 provided for this program for the

fiscal year 1959.

The Air Force Institute of Technology trains officers in scientific, foreign language, medical, engineering, managerial, and other fields as directed by Headquarters United States Air Force. Two general areas divides the Institute's operations. A resident program is conducted at Wright-Patterson Air Force Base and a program is conducted in civilian universities, industries, and hospitals. Students, in general, apply for the education and are chosen competitively. Legal authorization is provided by Section 9301 of Title 10, U. S. Code, and annual appropriations act. Cost for the fiscal year 1959 was \$5,106,752.

12. Naval Reserve Officers' Training Corps

The Department of the Navy has a program to train officer candidates at colleges and universities. There are three programs, the Naval Reserve Officers' Training Corps program, the Reserve officer candidate program, and the Navy enlisted scientific education program. NROTC programs are found in 53 colleges and universities. There have been two NROTC programs since 1946, "regular" and "contract". There is a wide variation between these two. Regular NROTC students are given a four year educational program subsidized by the Navy with the probably future of active service in the Navy. These persons are selected by competitive scholarship procedures, and when graduated receive commissions in the Regular Navy or United States Marine Corps. Contract NROTC students are selected from various universities. They take certain naval science courses, one summer training course, and drills. For this they are given their uniforms, a ration allowance in the junior and senior

years, and if qualified upon graduation get a Reserve commission. Legal authorizations are 10 U.S.C. 6901, 6903, 6904, and 6905; 10 U.S.C. 593. The cost for the fiscal year 1959 was for the NROTC \$16,611,000 and this included pay and allowances of students. All other programs exclusive of pay and allowances of active duty student personnel was \$2,031,437.

Another Naval program provides for undergraduate education for those officers who are commissioned as unrestricted line officers of the Regular Navy. There are three undergraduate training programs, the five term college training program, the naval aviation college program, and the "new" five term college training program. These programs provide for eligible officers to obtain a baccalaureate degree at accredited colleges and universities. Any field of study may be pursued except pre dental, pre pharmacy, pre medical, pre theology, music, art, or law. A requirement since 1957 is that all personnel include mathematics through calculus in their course of study in addition to one and one-half years of physics. Legal authorization is Public Laws 347 and 729, 79th Congress. Total cost for the fiscal year 1959 was \$200,000 approximately, not including pay and allowances for student officers.

13. Air Force Reserve Officers' Training Corps

The Air Force ROTC was initiated in 1946 and has consistently become larger having started with 8,700 students in seventy-eight units. The end of the fiscal year 1962 is expected to see an annual production of officers numbering 4,000. The units are established at educational institutions and carried on through professors of air science who command them. Legal authorization is Section 40-47c, National Defense Act of 1916, as amended. Cost of the program was \$5,830,000 for the fiscal year 1959.

E. Program of the Department of Justice, INS

The Department of Justice through the Immigration and Naturalization Service has a program to enable immigrants who wish to be naturalized to fulfill the requirements of the naturalization law. In 1918 this Department began its program to cooperate with the public schools by supplying them with textbooks without cost to provide adult education for the foreign born. Information about applications is also provided. Authorization for the program is Section 346 of the Immigration and Nationality Act. Cost of the program for the fiscal year 1959 was \$37,827.

F. Program of the Post Office Department, Management Development

Specialized training is provided for officials in the field of management. This program has been mainly outservice. Seminars are given through universities and institutions such as the American Management Association. Principles of organization, effective communication, human relations, administration, and levels of management are taught. Authorization stems from the general authority of the Postmaster General as contained in Title II of Public Law 85-354. Cost for the fiscal year 1959 was \$55,542.

G. Programs of the Department of the Interior¹⁴

1. Survey of Programs

The principal concern of the Department of the Interior is the conservation, management, and development of Federal lands, oil, gas, minerals,

¹⁴U.S. Department of the Interior, 1959 Annual Report for the Fiscal Year Ended June 30, 1959: Resources for a Growing Population (Washington, 1959), pp. Ixcii-459.

forests, fish and wildlife resources, water and power resources, and the national park system. There are education programs related to these activities. The Bureau of Mines Safety-Training Program has been continued for the last forty-eight years to give training in first aid, accident prevention, rescue work, and health education for minors.

The operation of Indian schools requires the greatest expenditure of funds from this Department. The purpose is to enable the Indians to achieve a higher type of social and economic orientation and thus contribute more efficiently to the welfare of the nation. In addition, this Department offers educational services for dependents of national park employees. Usually this education is provided through arrangements made with local schools.

Revenues which are derived from funds received from permits, licenses, and leases from grazing lands, mineral lands, and national forests are sometimes distributed to the various states for their programs of education. These states are those having portions of the public domain, and they receive funds proportionately to the amount collected from lands within their limits. These revenues may be used by their local governments principally for roads and schools.

2. Education of Indians, Eskimos and Aleuts¹⁵

The Department of the Interior through the Bureau of Indian Affairs provides educational opportunities for children of Indian parentage in the United States and some adults to attend schools carried on by the Federal Government, provides for Indian children who are not enrolled in public schools,

¹⁵Ibid., pp. 233-236.

and endeavors to integrate Indian children into the public school system as quickly as possible. In 1953 there were 17.1 per cent of Indian children of school age who were not enrolled in any schools. There has been good progress since then and in 1957 only 5.6 per cent of these Indian children were still out of school. The increase in enrollment makes obvious the need for greater school facilities. There are many Indian children and adults who attend public schools of local school districts. When these children inhabit lands which are tax exempt, the Federal Government contributes to the support of their education by making contracts for financial aid to the local and state departments of education. Approximately 41,370 Indians were educated in public schools through contract agreements in 1957. There has been considerable improvement over a period of ten years in the educational program for Indians in the United States. In 1947-48 the expenditure was \$11,785,700 which grew to \$45,731,148 for the year 1956-57.

The Department of the Interior administers two programs in Alaska. The Public Works Program gives financial aid to construction programs and the Bureau of Indian Affairs operates educational services in public schools, Federal day and boarding schools, in mission schools, and other types of schools for the education of Indians, Aleuts, and Eskimos. The Federal Government through the Alaska Public Works Program contributed \$17,905,152 over a period of nine years from 1949-50 to 1957-58 for school buildings. This was estimated as a contribution of fifty per cent of the total construction expenditure for school buildings in Alaska.

In referring to Indian, Eskimo, and Aleut children the expression "native children" is used. For the school year 1956-57 of 12,655 native children of

the ages six to eighteen there were 6,144 enrolled in public schools, 4,588 in Federal schools both day schools and boarding schools, 724 were enrolled in mission and other schools, and the remainder of 1,229 were not attending school. There is an additional estimated twelve hundred children who live in isolated areas and are not accounted in the school census. The Johnson-O'Malley Act of 1934 authorized the Secretary of the Interior to make contracts with states as well as with Alaska to allow local school authorities to use Federal buildings and facilities and then operate schools for Indians. This has resulted in some areas which have large Indian populations having no Federal schools but rather local schools operated in Federal buildings. To be educated under Federal authority, the child must be one-fourth or more of Indian, Eskimo, or Aleut blood.

Adult Indians participate in educational activities ranging from elementary reading and writing to citizenship training in practical and vocational education. The Bureau of Indian Affairs has a limited program of this type.

The Federal Government schools operated for Indian children meet the specified educational standards of the state in which they function. The Federal secondary schools for Indians are accredited so the student is enabled to enter college on the same basis as those students from public high schools. Legal authorization for this program is found under 48 Stat. 596, as amended, 49 Stat. 1458; 25 U.S.C; U.S.C. 18. The cost of operating this program for the fiscal year 1959 was \$47,320,754. In addition to this, the Bureau spent \$12,027,512 for construction of educational facilities for Indians during the same fiscal year.

3. Education in Territories and Possessions¹⁶

An education program is provided for the six hundred Aleutian natives on the Pribilof Islands. The children or residents on the two inhabited of St. George and St. Paul are provided with a primary school. The school program on the Islands is essentially the same as in other primary schools in the State of Alaska in regard to curriculum, textbooks, and ratio of teachers to children. The legal authorization for this is the Fur Seal Act of February 26, 1944 (16 U.S.C. 631h). Cost for the fiscal year 1959 was \$58,500.

School support in the Virgin Islands is derived mainly from local sources. The Federal Government appropriates funds for the salaries of school superintendents and for some public works construction of school buildings. During the past ten years, to date of 1957, \$89,695 was appropriated for salaries of school superintendents and \$3,552,444 for school construction.

In American Samoa the Department of the Interior maintains public schools as a cooperative enterprise between the local authorities and the Government of American Samoa. The local community is responsible for the housing of elementary schools and teachers. The Government provides the teachers for all public schools, provides equipment and supplies, and the housing for the junior and senior high schools. The Government finances the educational program through local revenues and funds from Federal grants. Legal authorization is from the annual appropriation acts. Cost for the fiscal year 1959 was \$322,637 for the Federal Government.

There is a program operated to maintain public education in the Trust

¹⁶Ibid., pp. 365-380.

Territory and also for advanced training of Micronesian students outside of the Trust Territory. There are elementary schools provided for every island which has children, intermediate schools at district headquarters, and the Pacific Islands Central School which gives three years of secondary school education and provides boarding as well. There are also teacher training programs and vocational education. In Hawaii and Guam students may participate in a scholarship program on a selective basis. The complete program of public education is financed by local revenues which are aided by Federal funds from grants. Legal authorization is from the annual appropriation acts, and the cost for the fiscal year 1959 was \$542,802 for the Federal Government.

4. Education for Children of National Park Service Employees¹⁷

Special educational programs are provided for the children of national park employees. Many of them are forced to live in sections that are isolated and not accessible to public schools. The Department of the Interior arranges special programs of schooling for these children. Before 1948 funds for the education of children of Government employees who lived in Yellowstone National Park were raised by these employees. At present part of the revenue collected from visitors to Yellowstone National Park is used to provide an elementary school located in the Park and to reimburse school boards in communities adjacent to it. These communities provide education for Park employee children and are paid on a pro rata per pupil basis for tuition and transportation costs. If the provision made for education of these children is seen to be inadequate

¹⁷Ibid., pp. 323-370.

by the Secretary of the Interior, the Federal Government will provide funds to pay for construction and expansion of local facilities and cover any increased cost local agencies may incur. Authorization is from Public Law 604, 80th Congress, and the cost for the fiscal year 1959 was \$26,958.

Crater Lake National Park in Oregon beginning with the school year 1951-52 provided for school room space by using a room of the administration building at the Park headquarters. Working funds advanced to the National Park Service pay for teacher, textbooks, supplies, heat, and janitor service, and funds are also advanced for tuition, board and room of pupils who attend the high school outside of the park. Authorization is from Public Law 874, 81st Congress. Cost for the school year 1957-58 was \$7,075 to the Federal Government.

The 81st Congress under Public Law 874 also arranged for children of Mammoth Cave National Park employees to receive free public education financed by the Federal Government. Reimbursements are made to the local school boards in surrounding communities in the State of Kentucky based on the cost to the school board. Cost to the Federal Government for the school year 1957-58 was \$1,480.

5. International Cooperation¹⁸

Techniques basic to the settlement of extensive land areas and problems pertinent to developing countries are fields in which training is offered by the Bureau of Land Management. Authorization is from the Mutual Security Act of 1954, and cost for the fiscal year 1959 was \$10,860. Foreign engineers are

¹⁸Ibid., pp. 153.

trained in phases of water research development in irrigation, hydropower, and flood control as part of the Government's foreign technical assistance program. Same authorization as above, and the cost for the fiscal year 1959 was \$154,176. The Geological Survey is an exchange program in operation since 1946. It provides technical training for foreign students in geology, hydraulics, and topographic mapping. Same authorization as above, and the cost for the fiscal year 1959 was \$338,825. The ICA has sponsored a program since 1948 which trains about thirty-five foreign persons a year to strengthen technologic development in foreign mineral activities. Authorization is the same as above, and the cost of the program for the fiscal year 1959 was \$97,000.

6. Management Development¹⁹

The Department of the Interior has a training program for selected employees in which they are groomed to become personnel for the department with staff and management responsibilities. Authorization is from the Government Employees Training Act, and the cost for the fiscal year 1959 was \$47,600. A departmental manager development program similar to the above program and with the same authorization cost \$19,600 for the fiscal year 1959.

7. Research Programs²⁰

The College Cooperative Research Program was set up to provide an expedient means of doing research needed by the Bonneville Power Administration, BPA. The

¹⁹Ibid., pp. 318-319.

²⁰Ibid., pp. 74-93, pp. 161-208, pp. 383-388.

results of the research are immediately incorporated into the work of the Agency. Authorization is from the Bonneville Project Act, and cost for the fiscal year 1959 was \$34,200. The Bureau of Mines maintains a program for research on problems of the mineral industry in the United States. This program is on a graduate level and gives fellowships to American and foreign students. Results of this research is immediately incorporated into publications issued by the Bureau of Mines. Authorization is from 30 U.S.C. 8 and 9, and cost for the fiscal year 1959 was \$35,300. Research in relation to studies on fishery products and a program to train personnel for key positions in wildlife management and to conduct research necessary to wise utilization of fish and wildlife resources is carried on by the Fish and Wildlife Service. Authorization for these programs is from the annual appropriation act, and cost for the fiscal year 1959 was \$175,800.

H. Programs of the Department of Agriculture²¹

1. Survey of Programs

As a result of programs of educational and informational significance agriculture in the United States has developed to the point where one person farming produces enough food and fibre for twenty-one persons.²² Various programs carried on by the Department of Agriculture come under the heading of Commodity Stabilization Program, Farmer Cooperative Service, Agricultural

²¹U. S. Department of Agriculture, Report of the Secretary of Agriculture, 1959 (Washington, 1960), pp. v-66.

²²Federal Funds for Education, p. 78.

TABLE IV

U. S. DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE
 OBLIGATIONS FOR ACTIVITIES OF AN EDUCATIONAL CHARACTER²³
 FISCAL YEAR 1959

Extension Service	\$63,524,298
Agricultural Research Service	218,961
Farmer Cooperative Service	123,000
Forest Service	423,939
Soil Conservation Service	103,900
Agricultural Marketing Service	529,080
Commodity Stabilization Service	8,401
Office of Information	550,000
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Total	\$65,490,579

²³Quattlebaum, II, pp. 115-116.

Conservation Program Service, Agricultural Research Service, Agriculture Marketing Service, Farmers' Home Administration, Soil Conservation Service, Rural Development Program, Foreign Agricultural Service, and Rural Electrification. In addition to these educational services the Department of Agriculture carries on other activities in education. The United States Department of Agriculture Graduate School in Washington, D.C., is almost self-supporting, receiving a small amount of funds from the Federal Government. It serves about seven thousand part time students and is given the use of facilities pertaining to the Department of Agriculture.

Legislation which authorizes the aforementioned educational agriculture programs provides that Federal grants for these projects are only to be used for research and the distribution of information obtained. There is rigid screening by the Department to see that the funds are not used for teaching or direct educational purposes in the schools unless legally authorized. As an example, the National School Lunch Act states that neither the Secretary nor the state may in any manner impose requirements or interfere with teaching personnel, curriculum, methods of instruction, and materials of instruction in any school.

2. Extension Service²⁴

The purpose of the Agricultural Extension Service is to distribute information on agriculture, marketing practices, home economics, and to instruct farmers on needed farm knowledge and skills. In 1914 the Smith-Lever

²⁴U. S. Department of Agriculture, Annual Report, pp. 27-31.

Act was passed to provide for the education of the farmer and worker on subjects such as agriculture and home economics. Most of the subjects in relation to agriculture at that time related to crops and livestock. At present the extension service is a nationwide system which is an effective educational influence in the improvement of economic welfare, community life, and health of rural families. This cooperative service operates through land-grant colleges. Legal authorization is 7 U.S.C. 341-348, 7 U.S.C. 1621-1627. Cost for the fiscal year 1959 was \$63,524,298.

3. Agricultural Research Service²⁵

Research is conducted on livestock, crops, water and soil conservation, farm economics, home economics, agricultural engineering, and related topics in carrying out the purpose of the Agricultural Research Service. Research is conducted at the twelve thousand acre Agricultural Research Center at Beltsville Maryland and other locations in the United States, its possessions, and in foreign lands. Research is conducted, also, with different private and public agencies and institutions. Legal authorization is from various Congressional acts and from the Department of Agriculture and Farm Credit Administration appropriation acts. Cost for the fiscal year 1959 for research conducted at experiment stations and educational institutions was \$14,463,000.

Another program of the Agricultural Research Service provides payments to states for agricultural research at experiment stations of land-grant colleges. This activity seeks to promote efficient production, marketing, distribution, and utilization of farm products so as to further an effective agricultural

²⁵Ibid., pp. 9-14.

industry and to upgrade the living standard of rural families. The Hatch Act of 1887, the Adams Act of 1906, the Purnell Act of 1925, the Bankhead-Jones Act of 1935 and 1946 provided for experiment stations in land grant colleges and provided for research at agricultural experiment stations. Legal authorization is 7 U.S.C. 361a-261i; 1623; 39 U.S.C. 321q. Cost for the fiscal year 1959 was \$31,804,000.

4. National School Lunch and Special Milk Programs²⁶

To provide a greater market for agricultural food commodities and to contribute to the health of the Nation's children, Federal aid is given through both funds and food which are given to states and territories. This program was instigated in 1935 when there was a surplus of agricultural production and is provided to children on the high school level and below it. When first instituted, surplus foods were distributed to school lunchrooms; in 1940 the half pint of milk for a penny or without charge was added to this. The Department of Agriculture and local organizations would pay any additional cost in this milk program. In 1943 the Department gave additional funds to the lunch program to help provide a complete lunch. In 1946 the National School Lunch Act was passed which placed the responsibility for a complete lunch program on the state or the state departments of education. In private and parochial schools, however, the Department of Agriculture continues to administer the program directly since in some states school aid from the state is forbidden to private or parochial schools. The amount of surplus commodity which will be received by the schools depends upon market conditions and the need to distribute

²⁶ Ibid., p. 38.

surpluses. Authorization is from the National School Lunch Act. Cost of the program for the fiscal year 1959 was \$211,355,503.

The School Milk Program was instituted for the purpose of providing and encouraging the drinking of milk for children in high school and below including nonprofit nursery schools, child care centers, settlement houses, summer camps, and other nonprofit institutions of child care. As far as possible the program is administered by the state. The state is given funds monthly in advance in the amount which it is anticipated they will need. Authorization is the Act of July 1, 1958, Public Law 85-478, as amended (73 Stat. 15). Cost for the fiscal year 1959 was \$75,067,542.

5. Foreign Agricultural Service²⁷

The Department of Agriculture cooperates with the International Cooperation Administration in training persons selected by the latter organization and the United Nations. The Department and various land-grant colleges work in different ways to train foreign students in the fields of agriculture, home economics, and related subjects. Authorization is from Public Law 535, 81st Congress. Cost for the fiscal year 1959 was \$4,369,875.67.

I. Programs of the Department of Commerce²⁸

The Department of Commerce operates three types of educational programs, those concerned with the in-service training of employees, secondly the in-

²⁷Ibid., pp. 44-49.

²⁸U. S. Department of Commerce, 47th Annual Report of the Secretary of Commerce: 1959 (Washington, 1960), pp. vi-96.

service of foreign nationals, and third the operation of specialized training schools. The Department also has relationships which affect educational institutions including the payment of tuition for selected personnel to various colleges and universities, giving research contracts to universities and colleges, financial aid is furnished to state schools of higher education, and stimulating education in special fields in regular public institutions.

All the bureaus of the Department of Commerce carry on in-service training programs for their personnel and out-service training at colleges and universities is also provided. The Bureau of Standards offers a graduate school which specializes in physical science courses. This school offers a means of advancement and increases the efficiency of employees. It is operated mainly for Government employees but is open to the public after working hours. There is a post-doctoral program offered by the National Bureau of Standards which gives opportunities to young scientists to carry on basic research.

Training programs for patent examiners are operated by the Patent Office to enable them to successfully handle patent examination, legal problems, and increase their understanding of human relationships.

Foreign nationals, particularly those of Latin America and the Phillipines with other nations increasingly sending participants, are given in-service training by the Department. The Census Bureau, the United States Coast and Geodetic Survey, the Bureau of Public Roads, the National Bureau of Standards, the Weather Bureau, and the Office of Business Economics all offer training.

The Maritime Administration through the United States Merchant Marine Academy trains inexperienced men to enable them to become licensed officers in the United States Merchant Fleet. There is another program sponsored by the

Weather Bureau to further research in the development of the science of meteorology. In this program contracts are made with universities, and indirect financial assistance is given to students of this subject who are employed as research assistants. The appropriation for meteorology research was \$381,683 for the fiscal year 1959. The total appropriation for all of the educational programs of the Department of Commerce for the year 1959 was \$4,802,243.

J. Programs of the Department of Labor²⁹

Four activities are carried on in education by the Department of Labor. The Bureau of Apprenticeship and Training operates programs for industrial workers, the Bureau of Employment Security has staff training including that of State agencies, the Bureau of Labor Standards trains safety inspectors, and there is an in-service training program for Department personnel. The Department also cooperates in educational programs with other Federal agencies in training programs for foreign nationals.

The Bureau of Apprenticeship and Training cooperates and works with local and state boards of education and vocational schools, with labor unions, and with employer organizations to develop skills for industry. The Bureau of Employment Security works with employment security agencies of the states to further in-service training of staff employees. The Bureau of Labor Standards conducts safety courses for persons from the Federal and state agencies, for labor union representatives, and for the maritime. Agreements are carried out with the International Cooperation Administration and educational programs with

²⁹U.S. Department of Labor, 47th Annual Report of the United States Department of Labor, Fiscal Year 1959 (Washington, 1960), pp. iii-275.

the Educational Exchange Service of the Department of State. These programs pertain to the training and instruction of foreign nationals. The objective is to develop improved labor relations, and technical programs of the Department are to increase free and democratic labor relations. Cost of these activities of the Department of Labor for the fiscal year 1959 was \$7,908,135.

K. Programs of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare³⁰

1. Survey of Programs

The Department of Health, Education, and Welfare is the principal Federal agency devoted to education through the Office of Education in this Department. Two general activities concerned with education are conducted by the Department. One activity may be classified as that which helps to promulgate and serve educational institutions and the other seeks to stimulate the use of these institutions and facilities by individuals and groups.

The Office of Education distributes educational statistics and gives information and consultative services. It also provides financial aid to research programs and experimentation in education and endeavors to put the findings into practice. Leadership and professional guidance as to organization and management of school systems, teacher certification, educational legislation, and international education are all activities of this Department. Educational programs for veterans, exchange teacher programs, civil defense education, surveys and special studies on education, and educational technical assistance

³⁰U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Annual Report for 1960 (Washington, 1960), pp. 179-229.

are provided.

The Office of the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare takes care of grant-in-aid audits and the operation of the surplus property utilization in regard to educational institutions. The Assistant Secretary is responsible for the American Printing House for the Blind, Howard University, Gallaudet College, however these three institutions are semi-public enterprises under private corporations. The Public Health Service disseminates information to be used in upgrading methods and teaching of good mental health. The Office of Vocational Rehabilitation helps persons with physical or mental disabilities who are unable to find employment. They are given vocational counseling and training and aided in finding employment. Other activities of the Department are those of St. Elizabeths Hospital's educational programs which provide training in psychiatry and other related medical fields, the Food and Drug Administration which has an in-service training program for its personnel, and the Social Security Administration's activities in the education of its social workers. Cost of operation of the educational programs of the Department for the fiscal year 1959 was \$713,700,127.

2. Endowments to Land-Grant Colleges and Universities

Based on the Morrill Act of 1862 and subsequent acts which further endowed agricultural and mechanical colleges, land-grant funds are now received by sixty-eight institutions in the United States and Puerto Rico. The Federal Government at present contributes about two per cent of the cost of resident instruction. The remainder of the funds for these colleges is derived from the income from endowments and student payments and through direct appropriations in the states. Land-grant colleges and universities have a far reaching

TABLE V

SUMMARY OF FEDERAL ASSISTANCE TO THE STATES AND TERRITORIES
FOR EDUCATIONAL PURPOSES, ADMINISTERED BY
THE DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE³¹
1956-57

Program	Amount of Support
Support of land-grant colleges	\$5,051,500
Aid to federally affected areas	
Maintenance and operation	93,194,675
School house construction	66,882,282
Library services	1,890,000
Vocational education below college grade	38,008,535
American Printing House for the Blind	240,000
Education of Public Health personnel.	1,041,916
Acquisition cost of Federal surplus property transferred	
Personal property	234,862,274
Real property	7,527,841
Vocational Rehabilitation	34,847,954
	<hr/>
Total	\$483,546,977

³¹Federal Funds for Education, pp. 24-25.

influence beyond the number of students attending. However, during the school year 1956-57 students numbered 540,888 and the staff of the institutions numbered 89,306. The operating cost of this educational activity was \$5,051,500 for the fiscal year of 1959.

3. Federal-State Vocational Education

This program provides for the cooperation of the Office of Education with state boards in the operation and development of vocational education. The acts in this program operate on the matching principle with equal allotments from the state and Federal Government. Local funds often form part of the contribution of the state and there is public control of the program. This training is for students over fourteen years of age but under college grade level. Although most of this work is given by secondary schools, other types of schools are allowed to receive Federal aid for this type of training as long as the work is below college grade level and meets the other specifications of the acts and the state provisions. In the school year 1957-58 there was a total of 3,629,339 students enrolled in the various classes which come under this program. Specifically these classes consisted of 775,892 in agricultural education, 1,559,822 in home economics, 983,644 in trade and industrial education, 282,558 in distributive education, and 27,423 in practical nurse training. Authorization of this program is the Smith-Hughes Act, the George-Barden Act, and the National Defense Education Act of 1958. Cost of operating this program to the Federal Government for the fiscal year 1959 was \$42,137,730.

4. Aid to Schools in Federally Affected Areas

Local school systems which suffer financially because of some program of the United States Government taking place in their vicinity are provided for by the Federal Government. There are formulas for determining whether a school district is eligible for this type of Federal aid and the amount it should receive. There are two laws which provide for this aid and different formulas operate under each law. Public Law 815 provides for the construction of additional school facilities when a two year period will show decided increase in the number of children who are dependents of Federal personnel. Public Law 874 renders eligible for Federal aid a school district which has a certain percentage of its total attendance made up of children of Federal personnel. This aid is for maintenance and operation costs. Both acts provide for the Commissioner of Education to construct and to operate schools in areas where no educational agency is to be found for Federally connected children.

In the fiscal year 1957-58, children of Federal personnel being educated under Public Law 874 numbered 1,228,839. During the eight years of the school construction program 42,562 classrooms were constructed with related facilities and given financial assistance through the Federal aid program. Both Public Laws 815 and 874 prohibit the Federal Government or its agencies from exercising any direction, control, or supervision over the personnel, curriculum or program of instruction of any school system receiving aid. Cost of the total program under both laws for the fiscal year 1959 amounted to \$236,039,099.

TABLE VI

FEDERAL FUNDS FOR VOCATIONAL EDUCATION
OF LESS-THAN-COLLEGE GRADE³²
1957-58

Program	Allotted
Smith Hughes	
Agriculture	\$3,054,662
Trade, home economics, and industry	3,104,435
Teacher training	1,114,233
	<hr/>
Total under Smith Hughes	\$7,273,330
George-Barden (Title I) . .	
Agriculture	10,274,753
Trade and industry	8,266,824
Home economics	8,234,233
Distributive occupations	2,611,271
Fishery occupations	228,000
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Total under George-Barden (Title I)	\$29,615,081
George-Barden (Title II)	
Practical nursing	4,000,000
	<hr/>
Grand Total	\$40,888,411

³²Ibid., p. 52.

5. National Defense Education Act

Title II of the NDEA provides for the student loan program. Qualified graduate and undergraduate students are able to make loans through the university which they attend. The Federal Government allots funds to colleges and universities on the basis of the proportion their requests represent of the state allotment. The university then determines the method of dispensing and collecting the loan funds. A student may borrow as much as one thousand dollars a year but not over five thousand dollars for his entire college career. Institutions receiving this aid must contribute one dollar for every nine dollars of Federal funds. The student pays the loan back with an interest rate of three per cent a year beginning at the period he is no longer a full time student. In case of death or disability the loan is cancelled. Operating cost of the program for the fiscal year 1959 was \$31,000,000. Institutions receiving this type of Federal aid numbered 1,201 and enrolled approximately eighty-eight per cent of the full time college students in the country. Students receiving loans for the academic year 1958-59 numbered 36,497. It is estimated by Quattlebaum³³ that approximately 120,000 students will have received loans for the academic year 1959-60.

Title III of the NDEA provides for strengthening instruction in science, mathematics, and foreign languages. There are three provisions to this program, one is to pay state educational agencies for providing equipment used in the

³³Quattlebaum, III, p. 123.

instruction of these subjects, the second is to make loans to private nonprofit elementary and secondary schools for the same type of activity, and the third is to provide state educational agencies with Federal aid for supervisory or similar type services in public schools in the aforementioned fields. Grants which are made to public schools for these projects calling for equipment and minor remodeling are shared on a fifty-fifty basis with the state paying half of the sum and the Federal Government the other half. Cost of operating Title III for the fiscal year 1959 was \$34,853,017.

Under Title IV of the NDEA, graduate fellowship grants are given. These are given to institutions of higher learning which can demonstrate that they have a new or expanded graduate program; that the program of expansion will have increased the facilities of the college or university to train teachers for higher education and will also provide training to students coming from a wider geographical area; and that the student who receives the fellowship is preparing himself to teach in a college or university. Forty-seven states have had their graduate fellowship programs approved as administered in their universities and colleges. Students receiving these fellowships must have completed no more than one-half of graduate work and must be in a doctoral program. One thousand fellowships were provided for the first year of this program and fifteen hundred fellowships in the following three years. Any field of study is allowable. Cost of operating Title IV for the fiscal year 1959 was \$5,294,000.

Part A of Title V provides for guidance, counseling, and testing of students in public secondary schools. Other secondary schools may participate in this program if so authorized by law. There are two purposes to this Act,

one is to test students to identify those with particular aptitudes and abilities, and the other purpose is to provide counseling and guidance for students to enable them to make the most of their abilities and to encourage them to follow courses which will admit them to colleges and universities. States wishing to take part in this program submit a plan for testing in their public secondary schools and possibly other secondary schools to the Commissioner of Education. When approved grants are made on an annual basis to the state educational agencies. The state may arrange a plan of testing which includes non-public secondary schools, and the Federal Government provides the funds for the testing services directly and reduces the state allotment by the said amount. For the following three succeeding fiscal years the Government will pay one-half of the cost of this testing out of the state's allotment. Cost of operating Title V-A for the fiscal year 1959 was \$6,289,290.

Part B of Title V provides for the further education of guidance and counseling personnel and endeavors to increase the number of persons working in this field. During the fiscal year 1959 there were fifty short term institutes for the summer session and seven regular full time institutes engaged in this counseling and guidance program. Persons from public secondary schools attend these institutes which are supported by the Federal Government and in addition receive seventy-five dollars a week allowance and fifteen dollars for each dependent. Those from private secondary schools are allowed to attend but receive no allowance. There is no traveling allowance provided for either. Contract is made with colleges and universities for the administration of these institute programs and reports are submitted to the Office of Education as to the activities of the institute. The summer institutes were expected to enroll

2,200 persons from secondary schools and the regular session institutes about 320 persons. Cost of operating Title V-B for the fiscal year 1959 was \$3,387,989.

Title VI provides for a language development program to strengthen the teaching of modern foreign languages. Fellowships are given to students who will teach these languages. Research is conducted on the development of better methods and materials for language instruction, and surveys are carried on to determine the needs in the extension of the language instruction program. There are three methods of carrying out the development program in foreign language. The United States Commissioner of Education provides language centers and area centers where students may study a language in an institution of higher learning or in some foreign area where the language is spoken. Up to fifty per cent of the cost is derived from Federal aid. A second method provides language fellowships for individuals doing advanced study in modern foreign languages for which instruction is needed in the United States. Also, the Commissioner of Education sets up institutes for language study in the same manner as those provided for secondary school guidance counselors in Title V-B. A third method which emphasizes research and studies, promotes surveys and other research to find more effective methods of teaching these languages and of training teachers. There were about 925 elementary and secondary school teachers of French, Spanish, German, and Russian in attendance at the summer session institutes in 1959 and about one hundred teachers at the regular term institutes in 1959-60. Graduate students received 171 fellowships, and twenty research projects participated in mainly by university personnel were carried on. Cost of operating Title VI for the fiscal year 1959 was \$5,010,463.

Title VII of the NDEA provides for research in the utilization of new educational media. Radio, television, motion pictures among others are studied to discover new methods of using them in education, and a second purpose of this activity is to distribute and disseminate information on these media. The Commissioner of Education may allot grants-in-aid to organizations and public and private nonprofit agencies for research or experimentation if approved by the advisory committee. This advisory committee on new media for education considers and recommends various research programs. Another function in this program is the relating of research done on the problem by various organizations, foundations, or individuals. Cost of operating Title VII for the fiscal year 1959 was \$1,599,935.

Title X operates to provide grants to state educational agencies for one-half the cost of any programs they may have for the improvement of their statistical services. The maximum amount provided for any one state is \$50,000 for a fiscal year. This program is concerned with all levels of education for which statistical services are provided. Cost of operating Title X of the NDEA for the fiscal year 1959 was \$365,927.

L. Programs of the National Science Foundation

There are two types of educational programs administered by the National Science Foundation. The Division of Scientific Personnel and Education fosters activities that support advanced scholars, graduate students, and teachers. Also promoted by this Agency are programs and projects for the improvement of science education. The other type of program has grants for basic research and is administered through the Division of Biological and Medical Sciences; the Division of Mathematical, Physical, and Engineering Sciences; and the Office of

Social Sciences. The greater part of these grants is used to provide assistantships to graduate students and to individuals doing research in institutions of higher education. The general purpose of the Scientific Personnel and Education Division is to further science education and strengthen the training of scientists, engineers, and mathematicians.

Four main categories may be discerned in the activities of the above Division. Fellowships are awarded to scholars in science, mathematics, and engineering who have their own individual plans for study. A second category is those special projects which are devoted to finding new ways of teaching science. The third activity seeks to find improved curricula and materials for science teaching. A fourth activity promotes institutes for teacher training. Persons concerned in this program are students, teachers, advanced scholars who study on the graduate and postdoctoral levels.

In the fiscal year of 1959 fellowships were awarded to about four thousand persons in this program. Approximately thirty thousand elementary, secondary school, and college teachers attended institute programs. In addition to this six thousand high school students, almost one thousand high school and college teachers, two thousand college students, and approximately two hundred scientists and graduate students have taken part in the programs in science education. Cost of the programs of the National Science Foundation for the fiscal year 1959 was \$111,202,739.

M. Programs of the Veterans' Administration

Three large educational programs for veterans and for children of deceased veterans are administered by the Veterans' Administration. For service disabled veterans of World War II and the Korean conflict there is the vocational

rehabilitation program through which 675,000 disabled veterans received training by the close of the fiscal year 1959. A second program is that in which lost educational opportunities are restored for World War II and Korean conflict veterans. Trained under this program by the close of the fiscal year 1959 were 7,800,000 World War II veterans and 2,274,000 Korean conflict veterans. A third program is that in which educational assistance is given to war orphans. Receiving this assistance by the close of the fiscal year 1959 were 13,200 war orphans.

1. Vocational Rehabilitation of Disabled Veterans

Generally this program was completed for World War II veterans by July 25, 1956. However, an extension to July 25, 1960 was granted for a few thousand veterans who were unable to take advantage of this program within the specified time. Korean veterans must complete their programs before February 1, 1964. However, an extension was made to February 1, 1968 for those unable to initiate and complete training earlier.

The Veterans' Administration utilizes the facilities of established educational institutions and reimburses the institutions for tuition, books, supplies, and equipment furnished the veteran. A monthly subsistence allowance for the veteran of \$75.00, \$105.00 with one dependent, \$120 with more than one dependent is made during training and for two months thereafter. Authorization is from Chapter 31, title 38, U.S.C. Direct benefits to veterans in this program during the fiscal year 1959 were \$22,300,000.

2. Restoration of Educational Opportunities

As above, training in this program was completed for World War II veterans by July 25, 1956 and then extended to July 25, 1960. Korean conflict veterans must complete their training before January 31, 1965. To be qualified to enter training a veteran must indicate that the program will lead to an educational, professional, or vocational objective in an institution that meets the requirements of the Veterans' Administration. The monthly education and training allowance for tuition, fees, books, supplies, equipment, and subsistence paid to the veteran with no dependents is \$110, with one dependent \$135, with two or more dependents \$160. For apprenticeship or other training on the job and for institutional on-farm training the monthly allowances are somewhat less. Authorization is Public Law 85-857 for World War II veterans, and for the Korean conflict veterans it is Chapter 33, title 38, U.S.C. Cost for direct benefits of education and training allowances for Korean conflict veterans in this program is \$566,000,000 for the fiscal year 1959. Cost for World War II veterans for the fiscal year 1959 was \$381,000.

3. War Orphans' Educational Assistance

The 84th Congress under Public Law 634 provided for thirty-six months educational assistance for orphans of veterans who died from a service-connected disease or injury inflicted in the Spanish-American War or any war since then. To be eligible a war orphan must complete high school or be beyond the compulsory school age and younger than twenty-three years old. The program must meet the requirements of the Veterans' Administration. Monthly allowances are paid to the parent or guardian or in some instances to the war orphan. The allowance

for a full-time program is \$100, for a three-quarter program \$80, for a half-time program it is \$50 each month. Authorization for the program is Chapter 35, title 38, U.S.C. Cost of operating this program during the fiscal year 1959 was \$7,700,000. An additional expense incurred for the three programs totaled \$5,600,000 that was paid to schools during the fiscal year 1959 for making required reports. Another expense at the same time was that of \$2,100,000 paid to the states for inspection for approval and review of courses at schools.

N. Programs of the Housing and Home Finance Agency.

1. Urban Renewal School Projects

Urban renewal noncash local grants-in-aid for schools allows credit for the local construction of schools needed to serve an urban renewal project area. From 1949 through May 31, 1959 there were eighty projects approved in fifty-four localities in the United States and its Possessions. From a total of \$105,000,000 for school construction, \$67,000,000 was as for noncash local grants-in-aid. In these cases, \$38,000,000 was school construction in communities served outside the urban renewal areas. The most recent authorization for this program is Public Law 85-104.

2. Lending for Student and Faculty Housing

To assist in the construction of housing and related facilities, the Community Facilities Administration (CFA) of the HHFA makes long-term low interest loans for students and faculties of institutions of higher learning. For the ten years that the program has been in effect, as of June 30, 1959 there were 913 loans approved totaling \$887,000,000. For the fiscal year 1959 there were loans made that totaled \$164,400,000; loans in process were \$40,400,000;

administration expense was \$1,600,000. Authorization for the program is 12 U.S.C. 1749.

3. Advance Planning of School Projects

Interest-free repayable advances to state and local governmental agencies as loans for planning school projects in conjunction with other governmental construction projects is carried on by the Community Facilities Administration. Through Public Law 560, 83d Congress and Public Law 345, 84th Congress advances amounting to \$33,200,000 have been approved of which \$7,300,000 has been for school construction planning projects with an estimated cost of \$301,400,000. There were 316 school projects planned and of these seventy-five are under construction. Cost for the fiscal year 1959 for these school construction planning projects was \$868,000.

4. School Construction in Federally Affected Areas

Technical assistance is given to the Office of Education for school construction in certain federally affected areas under Public Law 815, 81st Congress, as amended. For non-Federal projects the HHFA does the financial, legal, and engineering review of applications and inspects the schools being constructed. On Federal property the HHFA has charge of the school construction projects. The HHFA lists the costs for the fiscal year 1959 as \$82,940,103.

O. Activities of Other Federal Agencies

1. Programs of the Atomic Energy Commission

In the Division of Reactor Development there is the AEC-American Society for Engineering Education Institute which provides summer institutes for

university faculty members to learn the latest developments in the reactor fields. Cost of this program for the fiscal year 1959 was \$296,119. Another institute that is for college teachers but in this case also includes high school teachers of biology is operated by the Division of Biology and Medicine and the National Science Foundation. This summer institute served 740 high school teachers and forty college teachers during the four summers of its existence. Students are provided tuition, family allowances, stipends, and travel allowances. Cost for the fiscal year 1959 at the nineteen institutes was \$336,224.

A special fellowship program to encourage graduate work in the atomic energy aspects of the life sciences and secondly to assist universities in improving and enlarging their programs in the fields of health protection is provided by the Division of Biology and Medicine. Cost of operating this program for the fiscal year 1959 was \$498,184. This Division has another program in which equipment grants are made to educational institutions to be used in the study of nuclear technology as it pertains to the life sciences. This program cost \$1,027,155 during the fiscal year 1959. Another program for equipment grants to colleges and universities is operated by the Office of Isotopes Development. Cost of this program for the fiscal year 1959 was \$604,367. The Division of International Affairs operates an atoms-for-peace program at two universities and one laboratory at a cost of \$638,878 for the fiscal year 1959. This same Division has a Puerto Rico Nuclear Center (PRNC) to delve into peaceful uses of atomic energy. Cost of this program for the fiscal year 1959 was \$407,139. This program was carried on at the University of Puerto Rico. The Divisions of Production and Military Application has a

program for the education of dependents of employees and contractors at Commission installations. Cost of this program for the fiscal year 1959 was \$3,793,196. Special fellowships in nuclear science and engineering in the Division of Reactor Development cost \$426,028 for the fiscal year 1959.

The Division of Reactor Development has research projects in reactor physics, sanitary engineering, nuclear fuel cycle development, and training of technical manpower at universities in the United States. This program cost \$1,699,875 for the fiscal year 1959. Other research programs include offsite research program in the life sciences in the Division of Biology and Medicine that cost \$12,737,327 in 1959. This was carried on through universities. Another research program in this Department whereby university faculty members may spend three to twelve months in atomic energy installations cost \$148,763 in 1959. Another program in this area is carried on by the Division of Research in the fields of physics, chemistry, metallurgy, computer development, and controlled thermonuclear reactions. The research is carried on at universities at a cost of \$26,890,000 for 1959.

2. Program of the United States Information Agency

To train personnel so that they may be capable of carrying out certain overseas assignments requiring special language abilities, the USIA provides training at the Foreign Service Institute and at universities for three to twelve months. The training may be extended to two or three years for the more difficult languages. This program cost \$491,000 for the fiscal year 1959.

3. Program of the General Services Administration

The GSA makes available real property such as buildings, fixtures and equipment situated in the building which is surplus to the Federal Government to eligible educational institutions. From the inception of the program to June 30, 1950 there were 5,603 transfers that involved 110,154 acres of land and 24,821 buildings and other improvements that cost a total of \$512,000,000. From fiscal year 1951 through 1959 there was distributed to eligible educational institutions 11,880 acres of land and 6,402 buildings and other improvements that cost a total of \$71,310,064.

4. Programs of the Tennessee Valley Authority

In the Division of Agricultural Relations a research program to develop new and improved fertilizers and processes for their manufacture, secondly to test and demonstrate their value, and third to aid the agricultural development of the Valley is carried on in large part in land-grant colleges. Contractual arrangements are made with these colleges at a total cost of \$2,416,750 for the fiscal year 1959. The Division of Forestry Relations has a developmental program to develop full production and utilization of the forest resources of the Tennessee Valley. Cost of this program for fiscal year 1959 was \$614,095.

5. Programs of the National Aeronautics and Space Administration

The NASA operates a university research program in which scientific talent at academic institutions is made available to this Agency. Another advantage in this research on aeronautical and space flight activities is the training offered to the university graduate staff. Cost of this program for the year 1959 was \$5,552,000.

6. Operation of the Canal Zone Public Schools

The public schools in the Canal Zone offer educational opportunities for residents of the Canal Zone and for nonresident United States citizens employed in the Republic of Panama by the United States Government. There are no school laws in the Canal Zone, but schools are governed by administrative regulations. There are two types of schools in the Zone, the Latin American schools and the United States schools both operated by the United States Government. In addition, a Canal Zone Junior College is available for those who wish public education at this level. Cost of operating the schools in the Canal Zone is \$3,691,500 for the fiscal year 1959.

7. Operation of the District of Columbia Public Schools

The schools have a Board of Education in the District of Columbia for public education of children between the ages of five and eighteen, for teacher training, adult education, and the education of Capitol pages. During the fiscal year 1959 there were 114,219 students enrolled in the public schools with a cost to the Federal Government of \$56,885,576.

TABLE VII

OBLIGATIONS REPORTED BY FEDERAL AGENCIES
FOR EDUCATIONAL ACTIVITIES³⁴
FISCAL YEAR 1959

Department of State	\$171,771,168
Department of the Treasury	26,953,272
Department of Defense - Office of the Secretary	2,240,884
Department of the Army	309,272,000
Department of the Navy	482,208,990
Department of the Air Force	370,208,990
Department of Justice	3,194,442
Post Office Department	5,366,505
Department of the Interior	66,102,315
Department of Agriculture	428,532,246 ^a
Department of Commerce	4,802,243
Department of Labor	7,908,135
Department of Health, Education, and Welfare	713,700,127
Library of Congress	14,753,519
Veterans' Administration	627,405,000
National Science Foundation	111,202,739
Smithsonian Institution	4,913,107
Housing and Home Finance Agency	290,600,000
U. S. Information Agency	117,653,015
Atomic Energy Commission	57,000,000
General Services Administration	2,794,582
Tennessee Valley Authority	3,558,174
Other Federal Agencies	21,353,445
 Total	 <u>\$3,844,494,898</u>
 District of Columbia	 <u>56,393,670</u>
 Grand Total	 <u>\$3,900,888,568</u>

^a Activities considered by the Department to be educational under a narrower definition, \$65,490,579.

³⁴Quattlebaum II, p. 372.

CHAPTER V

THE PRESENT STATUS OF FEDERAL SUPPORT OF EDUCATION

IN CANADA

A. Federal Government Roles in Education¹

Canada does not have a national ministry of education, but there are several Federal Government departments and agencies that function in the field of education and related activities. There are three divisions which may be ascertained in a study of their educational program. A first function of Government departments in education is the operation of institutions of formal education, a second activity provides service or support to education, and the third category would be that of informal educational and cultural activities. In each case the department or agency is responsible to Parliament through a Minister of the Crown. The administrative head in each case is an employed public servant.

1. Operation of Institutions of Formal Education

There are three departments of the Federal Government which operate institutions of formal education. The Education Division of the Indian Affairs Branch in the Department of Citizenship and Immigration derives its responsibility for Indians from the British North America Act of 1867. The Federal

¹Information in a letter to the author from N. LeSeigneur, Chief, Elementary and Secondary Education Section, Education Division, Dominion Bureau of Statistics, May 30, 1960.

Government is responsible for their education. It controls all Government-owned day and residential schools for Indians with the exception of those in the Northwest Territories. The Government also exercises a certain amount of authority over church-owned residential schools which help to educate Indians. The Minister responsible for this division is the Minister of Citizenship and Immigration and the Division is under the authority of a "Superintendent".

A second department that operates institutions of education is the Education Division, the Northern Administration and Lands Branch of the Department of Northern Affairs and National Resources. This Division is responsible for the educational and vocational training programs of the Northwest Territories. It is responsible for organizing educational programs, for inspecting all schools in the Territories, and for the development of community welfare. The education of Eskimos in the Territories and also in Northern Quebec, the education of Indians in the Territories, and the operation of schools for white children for the Territorial Government are included. Schools which are Federally owned are under the jurisdiction of this Division which also has certain controls over the education of Indian and Eskimo children in schools owned by the church. The responsible Minister is the Minister of Northern Affairs and National Resources.

The third department which operates institutions of formal education is the Department of National Defense. This Department has two types of educational institutions in addition to its training program for officers and men. The first type of institution provides educational facilities for dependent children of serving personnel. There are some sixty-five schools in Canada and fourteen in Europe functioning under the Dependents Education Committee. The authority of

this Committee is complete over those schools operated in Europe. In Canada this type of school is under the jurisdiction of the provincial governments but the operating costs paid by the Federal Government are under its jurisdiction.

The second type of school under the Department of National Defense is the service college. There are three Canadian Services Colleges operated for the training of officers for the Armed Services. They are the Royal Roads at Esquimault, B.C., Royal Military College at Kingston, Ontario, and College Militaire Royale at St. Jean, Quebec. The responsible Minister is the Minister of Defense.

2. Operation of Services that Support Education

The Department of Labour has a Vocational Training Branch which administers the provisions of the Vocational Training Coordination Act. This authorizes agreements for sharing the cost of vocational training between the Federal and Provincial Governments. This Branch also conducts research projects and distributes informational bulletins and pamphlets to promote the various types of training. The responsible Minister is the Minister of Labor.

The Department of Finance gives funds annually to the Canadian Universities Foundation for distribution as unrestricted grants to colleges and universities. The responsible Minister is the Minister of Finance.

The Department of Veterans Affairs has training services which are administered by its Welfare Services Branch. This includes financial assistance for vocational and university training to all veterans including the Korean campaign veterans and for secondary and higher education to children of deceased veterans. The Branch also administers correspondence courses to veterans, penitentiary inmates, members of the Armed Services, and the Federal civil

service. The minister responsible is the Minister of Veterans Affairs.

The Office of the Commissioner of Penitentiaries provides inmates of Federal penitentiaries with facilities for correspondence courses, trade training, and informal educational activities. The responsible minister is the Minister of Justice.

The National Research Council has an Awards Branch which administers programs to promote scientific and industrial research. This includes scholarship and fellowship programs in science, engineering, medicine, and dentistry, and an extensive program of research grants to individual investigators in universities and research institutions. The responsible Minister is a Minister of the Crown.

The Canada Council was established in 1957 for the purpose of fostering the arts, humanities, and social sciences. It cooperates with organizations which have the same objectives as those of the Council. One of its major projects during these first ten years of its existence is the disbursement of a University Capital Grants Fund to help in the expansion and improvement of facilities of higher education. The responsible Minister is the Minister of Citizenship and Immigration.

The Canadian Citizenship Branch of the Department of Citizenship and Immigration assists governmental and non-governmental agencies in the planning and organization of programs and projects to educate for citizenship and also supplies information and materials to implement these projects. Financial help is given to provincial governments to meet the cost of language and citizenship classes to provide free textbooks for these classes and to voluntary organizations which are active in the field of citizenship training. The responsible

Minister is the Minister of Citizenship and Immigration.

The Department of External Affairs acts as a coordinating agency between governments of foreign countries and international agencies that work in cooperation with agencies in Canada concerned with educational and cultural activities. It cooperates with the Awards Committee of the Royal Society of Canada in the administration of scholarships for selected Canadian students in foreign countries. The responsible Minister is the Secretary of State for External Affairs.

The Division for Technical Cooperation Service, International Economic and Technical Cooperation of the Department of Trade and Commerce takes part in international economic aid programs in the recruitment of technical experts in Canada for service abroad and the training in Canada of personnel from abroad. The responsible Minister is the Minister of Trade and Commerce.

The Education Division of Dominion Bureau of Statistics collects, compiles, analyzes, and publishes statistics on Canadian education. The responsible Minister is the Minister of Trade and Commerce.

3. Operation of Agencies Engaged in Informal Education

The third type of activity the Government engages in in relation to education includes the National Film Board, National Gallery, National Library, Historic sites and Monuments Board, Public Archives, Canadian Broadcasting Corporation, National Museum of Canada, and the Library of Parliament. These agencies provide both educational and cultural activities on an informal level.

B. Analysis of Federal Government Roles in Education

1. Indian Education²

There has been an increase in the enrollment of Indian pupils which sets the total for the fiscal year 1959 at 38,836. In addition to this there are 1,168 non-Indian children of Government employees resident on Indian reservations, remote from public schools. Branch policy is to have qualified teachers whenever this is possible. However, the shortage of teachers makes it necessary to hire some who have had little or no professional training. When untrained teachers are selected, those who will take courses at teacher training institutions after their first teaching years are preferred.

Working in Indian schools in the fiscal year 1959 there were 430 teachers employed in residential schools, 761 in day schools, and 30 in hospital schools giving a total of 1,221 teachers. There are at present 90.5 per cent of day school teachers and 83.5 per cent of residential school teachers who are qualified. A teacher's salary is determined by a study of his qualifications, experience, and responsibility assigned to him regardless of the grade level on which he teaches. Annual salary increases are granted and based on satisfactory service and attendance at summer school courses. The annual staff turnover is 21.1 per cent.

The Government provides all standard classroom supplies and authorized textbooks. There are supplementary readers, reference books, teaching aids, and kindergarten supplies. The Government sets up libraries in each school and

²Canada Department of Citizenship and Immigration, Report of Indian Affairs Branch for the Fiscal Year Ended March 31, 1959, (Ottawa, 1960, pp. 55-62.

reading for enjoyment as well as information is encouraged. Also supplied are various audio-visual aids as radios, phonographs, and picture projection equipment. Indian schools and communities are given every opportunity to join local film councils and are given monetary aid for this purpose.

Home economics and industrial arts courses are offered to Indians wherever this possible. Special teachers are hired when there are enough pupils to make it worth while, and special programs emphasizing adjusting to modern society are also offered. Each province specifies a physical education program that is required and Indian day and residential schools follow it.

The curriculum is adjusted to meet the needs of the community. Instruction in the study of French and English is receiving considerable attention at teachers' institutes as most Indian pupils know little of these languages when they begin school. One of the major purposes of Indian education is acculturation encouraging intercultural understanding and helping youth to prepare for present day society.

The Government is expanding adult education as quickly as it can educate the Indians to their need for it. Literacy is one of the principal aims of these educational programs, but along with this goes training in trades and vocations, community improvement, and bettering home conditions. For the fiscal year of 1959 the Government paid for the educational activities of 857 Indian adults.

The Government also endeavors to help Indian students enrolled in non-Indian schools, particularly those who attend schools above the elementary level. Some students are given their tuition fees and help ranges from this to complete maintenance. The greater part of these students are given tuition grants, but a

scholarship program was set up in 1956, and at present there is also a simple bursary program which aids those students who cannot qualify for scholarships. Fifteen Indian students were given scholarships ranging from \$420 to \$1000 in the fiscal year 1959. Authority governing Indian education is contained in the Indian Act, Chapter 149 of the Revised Statutes of Canada, 1951 and Amendments, Chapter 40, 1956.

TABLE VIII
INDIAN EDUCATION - TOTAL EXPENDITURE³
1958-59

Program	Day Schools	Residential Schools	General	Total
In the eleven provinces	\$8,282,175	\$11,200,569		\$19,482,744
Tuition and main- tenance in non- Indian schools			\$1,981,670	
Misc. salaries and travel			254,213	254,213
School books and stationery	280,971	198,780	479,751
Miscellaneous	27,532	6,582	24,977	59,091
Totals	\$8,590,678	\$11,405,931	\$2,260,860	\$22,257,469

³Ibid., p. 92

TABLE IX
ANALYSIS OF ENROLLMENT OF INDIAN PUPILS⁴
1958-59

Day School.	18,076
Residential school boarders attending classes at residential schools.	9,691
Day pupils attending classes at residential schools	1,418
Seasonal school	893
Hospital school	572
Provincial, private and territorial school	<u>8,186</u>
Total	38,836

⁴Ibid., p. 98

TABLE X

INDIAN RESIDENTIAL SCHOOL BOARDERS CLASSIFIED
BY DENOMINATIONAL AUSPICES⁵
January 1959

Anglican Church	2,635
Presbyterian	312
Roman Catholic	6,826
United Church	938
Total	10,711 ⁶

2. Education in the Territories⁷

There are two governments responsible for the education of Indians and Eskimos and other children residing in the far North. The Federal Government administers and education of Indians and Eskimos, and the Territorial Government provides for the other children. The enrollment of all native children is only fifty-two per cent because the Eskimos and Indians are migrant and follow the movement of the game. However, this school attendance is improving as a result

⁵Ibid.

⁶Enrollment includes 283 residential school boarders attending Indian day schools and 737 attending Provincial and private schools.

⁷Canada Department of Northern Affairs and National Resources, Annual Report Fiscal Year 1958-59 (Ottawa, 1959), pp 24-113.

of diminishing wild life population and better medical and social measures being taken to help the Eskimos and Indians. The Indians and Eskimos are increasingly becoming wage employees and as a result need a primary and vocational education. The Department is seeking to provide this elementary education and to provide advanced vocational and academic education for those persons able to encompass it. New Government schools and pupils' residences are being constructed, more bursaries and other aids are being provided for students, special curriculums are being developed, and special vocational education projects are being conducted.

Forty-six schools are operated by the Department with nineteen of them in the Arctic. Mission schools are also aided by the Department which supplies them with grants, equipment, and teachers. There were 3,692 children who attended schools operated by the Department. There were 1,159 Eskimo children, 960 Indian children, and 1,573 other children that made up the enrollment for the fiscal year 1958-59. When the program was in its beginning phase \$189,967 was spent by the Dominion on education in the Northwest Territories.⁸ In the Yukon territory the total enrollment in 1958-59 was 1,877 and the average daily attendance was 1,688. There were eighty-one full time teachers and one part time teacher. In the Yukon there are fourteen centers of education only three of which offer a program on the grade levels one to twelve. In the other eleven communities the children's education can go to the eighth or ninth grade unless the parents can afford to send them to one of the high schools of the Territory

⁸School Finance in Canada: A Report by the School Finance Research Committee of the Canadian School Trustees' Association (Edmonton, 1955), p. 191

or outside of it.

Eleven years have elapsed since the first schools were initiated by the Federal Government in the Northwest Territories. There are only two authorities operating schools in this area at present compared to the situation in 1949 with eight authorities functioning. There are Federally operated and municipally operated schools. Five full hours of instruction for five days a week are offered by all schools. Teacher qualifications have also improved. In-service training and other increased professional services are being provided including two classroom visitations a year. Forty-nine communities in 1958 operated adult education programs. Films are now provided to fifty-nine centers and there are fifteen community libraries in operation. Almost every school also has a school library.⁹

In the Northwest Territories schools are usually located in settlements which are about 150 miles or more apart and which can be reached only by water or air transportation. All settlements are located on lakes, rivers, the Arctic Ocean, or Hudson Bay. The inhabitants number from just a few persons to about three thousand. Until recently residential facilities were available in the Mackenzie Valley in mission residential schools run by the Anglican and Roman Catholic Churches. At present hostels are built and owned by the Federal Government. They are then turned over to either the Roman Catholic or Anglican

⁹Canada Department of Northern Affairs and National Resources, Education Division, Northern Education: Ten Years of Progress (Ottawa, 1959), pp. 1-2.

Church for operation as the Indians and Eskimos are either one denomination or the other.¹⁰ Per pupil grants are made by the Government to the churches to cover the full cost of the maintenance of the children.

3. DND Education for Dependent Children¹¹

The Department of National Defense provides educational opportunities for children of Active Force personnel and for children of employed civilians in the Department. There are two parts to the program, that which is for persons living in Canada and the program for overseas personnel. The program operated in Canada establishes and carries on schools, utilizes nearby civilian facilities, and provides transportation for children attending service or civilian schools. Education is provided for children until they are nineteen years old at the beginning of a school year. The program includes grades kindergarten through grade thirteen.

Married personnel of the Active Force who live in a defense establishment with no civilian schooling available for their children may request the establishment of a school if there are ten children of school age to attend it. The Provincial Department of Education is contacted with the purpose of obtaining cooperation in sharing the costs of operation by provincial grants. The Minister of the Department of National Defense has delegated certain authority

¹⁰Canada Department of Northern Affairs and National Resources, Education Division, Teach in Canada's Northland (Ottawa, 1960), pp 7-8.

¹¹Canada Department of National Defense, "Educational Facilities Provided to Dependent Children," Bulletin HQ 2-496-1 Vol 4 and HQ 2-497-1 Vol 3 (Ottawa, 1960), pp. 1-6; Canada Department of National Defense, Report on National Defense (Ottawa, 1957), pp 58-59.

to the Dependents Education Committee of the Personnel Members Administrative Committee. The schools established are to be administered by the school committee according to the provincial Act in regard to schools and under the direct authority of the provincial Department of Education. In the first year the contracts between the Minister and the teachers of such a school will continue in force during the school year, but all subsequent contracts are between the Chairman of the School Committee and the teachers concerned. Textbooks for the children in these schools are obtained from normal civilian sources by the Chairman of the School Committee in accordance with the requirements of the Department of Education of the province. The Minister enters into agreements with the appropriate educational authorities as to the cost of the construction and operation of the schools. Defense personnel receive this program of education for their children without cost to themselves. Non-resident fees are paid in locations where civilian educational facilities are available to the civilian authority responsible.

All Department of National Defense Schools are operated according to a policy which seeks to have them function along the same lines as the civilian schools in the vicinity. Responsibility is decentralized to the Service School Committees and schools operate using the provincial curriculum under the supervision of the provincial school inspectors. Contracts are signed between the Chairman of the School Committee and the teacher under the same terms as apply to any of the public schools of the province.

The educational facilities of the Department of National Defense schools are also available to children of a foreign armed service and of personnel employed by another Government Department if these children are living at a

TABLE XI
OPERATING COSTS FOR DND SCHOOLS IN CANADA¹²
CALENDAR YEAR 1959

Item	Navy	Army	RCAF	DRB ¹³	Total
Salaries	\$230,000	\$1,740,277	\$2,829,547	\$30,753	\$4,830,577
School supplies and texts	8,800	171,872	271,066	5,350	457,088
Maintenance	58,150	329,294	775,048	8,200	1,170,692
Transportation	500	38,362	41,423	--	80,285
Imprest Funds	3,225	14,725	25,831	500	44,381
Total	\$300,675	\$2,294,530	\$3,943,015	\$44,803	\$6,583,023
Provincial grants	\$168,710	\$697,279	\$911,347	\$14,023	\$1,791,359
Non resident school fees paid by DND	108,500	527,192	436,724	4,850	1,078,266

¹²Canada Department of National Defence, "Educational Facilities Provided to Dependent Children, "Bulletin HQ 2-496-1 Vol 4 and HQ 2-497-1 Vol 3 (Ottawa, 1960), p. 3.

¹³Defence Research Board.

TABLE XII

NUMBER OF PUPILS, CLASSROOMS, TEACHERS
IN DND SCHOOLS OVERSEAS¹⁴
SEPTEMBER 1959

Item	Army	RCAF	Total
Number of Pupils enrolled	2,506	4,091	6,597
Number of classrooms	95	163	258
Number of Principals and Teachers	128	226	354

TABLE XIII

OPERATING COSTS FOR DND SCHOOLS OVERSEAS¹⁵
CALENDAR YEAR 1959

Item	Army	RCAF	Total
Teachers' Salaries	\$539,907	\$838,293	\$3,378,200
Transportation of Teachers	29,496	79,000	108,496
Transportation of Pupils	7,180	52,678	59,958
Textbooks and Supplies	48,130	50,900	99,030
Sports Equipment	2,300	4,167	6,467
Miscellaneous Grant	2,100	1,919	4,019
Total	\$629,113	\$1,026,957	\$1,656,070

¹⁴Educational Facilities Provided to Dependent Children," p. 4

¹⁵Ibid., p 5

camp or station where a school has been established and accomodation is available. Children of persons not employed by any Government Department may attend these schools if this accomodation is available and tuition fees are charged comparable to those received by other schools in the vicinity. During the school year 1959 there were 4,901 children of Active Force personnel and of civilian employees of the Department who attended civilian schools.

The Department of National Defence provides educational facilities for the children of its personnel at or near defense establishments in England, France, Belgium, and the Federal Republic of Germany and wherever there are other portions of the Canadian Forces stationed. Teachers and principals for these schools are employed through contracts set up by the Department of National Defence. The school board in Canada employes the teacher who is considered on loan to the Department. The school boards pay their salary and they are reimbursed by the Department of National Defence. The reason for this is to protect the superannuation and other rights of the teaching staff involved. Curriculum taught in these schools is in French and English and based on that of the provincial Departments of Education in Canada. The Course of Study provides one-half hour per day in conversational French for all elementary school children. Religious instruction is in accordance with the practices in the public and separate schools of Ontario. The Department of Defence operates schools and supports education under legislative authority contained in the National Defence Act, Chapter 164 of the Revised Statutes of Canada, 1952.

4. Vocational Training¹⁶

The Canadian Constitution designates education as a Provincial responsibility and vocational and technical education are included as such. The purpose of the Vocational Training Coordination Act which is the authority for Federal aid to vocational education is to fit any person to carry on gainful employment and to increase his skill and efficiency in it including the fields of agriculture, fishing, forestry, mining, construction, manufacturing, commerce, or any other industry. Technical training which is included involves some of the knowledge, techniques, and skills of the professions and the skilled trades.

Generally speaking, most provinces administer their own vocational training program through the Department of Education, or in the Province of Quebec it comes through the Department of Youth. This puts the technical, trade and industrial, the commercial education, the training and service occupations, the home economics all under the direction of one Provincial Government. However, in the Province of Quebec there is an exception since agriculture is administered by its Department, and fisheries education by the Department of Fisheries. In Nova Scotia, Ontario, and Alberta agricultural training is principally administered by the Department of Agriculture.

At the present time three Federal-Provincial agreements provide aid in vocational education. The basic agreement, the Vocational and Technical

¹⁶Canada Department of Labour, Report of the Director of Canadian Vocational Training for the Fiscal Year Ending March 31, 1959 (Ottawa, 1959), pp. 5-18; C. R. Ford, "Technical and Vocational Education in Canada," An address given April 21, 1960 at the American Industrial Arts and Vocational Teachers Convention at Toronto (Ottawa, 1960), pp. 1-17.

Training Agreement provides \$40,000,000 over a period of five years from which the Provinces may be reimbursed for capital or operating expenditures on vocational and technical training. Of this amount \$25,000,000 was set aside for capital expenditures and the remainder is divided into allotments which are distributed annually to provide up to a fifty per cent reimbursement. The Provinces receive this for their expenditures for the operational costs of vocational education. A second agreement, the Apprenticeship Agreement authorizes the Federal Government to reimburse the provinces fifty per cent of their expenditures for their training of apprentices and the supervision on the job. The third agreement is omnibus type agreement which provides Federal financial aid for special vocational training projects, such as the training of disabled persons, unemployed, training in primary industries, supervisory training in industry, training of members of the Armed Forces, and the development of vocational correspondence courses. In this agreement the Provinces may be reimbursed fifty per cent of the cost of approved vocational training programs and a hundred per cent of their cost if the training is for the Federal Government.

Federal aid given in the fiscal year of 1958-59 came to over \$9,000,000, and the total enrollment was approximately 225,000 persons in all programs. A main characteristic of the Canadian technical and vocational programs is their provision for pre-employment training. Most Canadian programs provide full time day training for a specific period for those who have not yet entered the labor market or for those who are preparing to change employment. This is distinguished from the part time or day or evening release classes for employed

persons which is customary in the United Kingdom or Continental Europe.¹⁷

There are three different types of training institutions characteristic of Canadian vocational education. The first is the vocational or technical or composite high school which provides this type of training for those students who have not yet entered the labor market. The second type of school provides trade or occupational training of varied types for persons out of school. The third type is a post high school technical training.

Certain trends may be discerned in Canadian vocational education.¹⁸ There are more vocational programs and more facilities being provided for this type of education. Increased emphasis is being placed on training for out of school people. This is done in various ways, through the advanced technical evening classes, through a block release under the apprenticeship program, and through general evening classes. In some cases there may be a day release. The vocational program in the composite high school is tending to move in the direction of general education. There is also better selection of students for certain specific programs. There are certain standards being set up for achievement in the various crafts and trades. The program in mathematics, science, and the communication skills is being considered as vocational when required for a vocational purpose by any person who has left the regular school system. Legislative authority is contained in the Vocational Training Co-ordination Act, Chapter 286 of the Revised Statutes of Canada, 1952.

¹⁷Ford, p. 3

¹⁸Ibid., pp 15-16

TABLE XIV

VOCATIONAL TRAINING ENROLLMENTS AND EXPENDITURES¹⁹
1958-59

Program	Enrollments	Expenditures
Special Allotment for Capital Expenditures	---	\$2,360,594.64
Annual Allotments	---	2,435,127.84
Training of Unemployed	259,209	510,479.99
Training for Disabled Persons	53,430	265,924.74
Youth Training (Other than Student Aid)	63,864	132,700.54
Student Aid	2,901	230,882.50
Training for Armed Forces	175	33,281.70
Apprentice Training	17,412	1,674,591.44

5. Canadian Universities Foundation²⁰

In 1949 the Massey Commission was appointed, which is a Royal Commission on National Development in the Arts, Letters, and Sciences. The National Conference of Canadian Universities presented a plea to the Commission asking for Federal grants to universities on the basis that they were national institutions. On the Commission was found the chancellor of a university who

¹⁹Report of the Director of Canadian Vocational Training, pp. 12-17.

²⁰Edward F. Sheffield, "Canadian Government Aid to Universities," Unpublished Report by the Research Officer, Canadian Universities Foundation (Ottawa, 196) pp. 1-12; Canadian Universities Foundation, "Federal Grants to Universities" (Ottawa, 1960), pp. 1-11.

was the Chairman, a member who was a university president, one who was a dean, one who was a professor, and one a university graduate with both earned and honorary degrees. The three recommendations stemming from the Commission which related directly to university affairs were that unrestricted annual grants be given to the universities by the Federal Government, that there should be created a national scholarship plan with Federal funds to support about twenty per cent of the university population, and that the Federal Government should establish a Canada Council for the Encouragement of the Arts, Humanities, and Social Sciences.

Federal aid was always distrusted by the Province of Quebec because of its possible interference with their way of life which was French in culture and also because of their feeling that rather than the Federal Government collecting taxes and afterward returning funds in the form of grants, Provinces should have jurisdiction over their own taxation procedures. In 1951-52 all of the provincial governments accepted the program which gave \$7,000,000 aid to universities. In 1952 the Province of Quebec expressed dissatisfaction with tax sharing arrangements so it advised universities within the province not to accept Federal university grants again. By 1954 the universities including those which had been accepting Federal aid were in poor financial straits and in addition to this heavier enrollments would soon need to be faced. As a result of this situation it was announced by the Prime Minister of Canada that his Government would double its appropriation for university grants from fifty cents to one dollar per capita if the National Conference of Canadian Universities would take over from the Federal Department of Finance the function of distributing the money to allay fear of Government interference in the provinces. Another

stipulation held that any grants not accepted by a university should be kept in trust for it by the Conference until payment should be requested.

In 1958-59 the basis of the appropriation was increased again, from \$1.00 to \$1.50 per capita and \$25,500,000 was appropriated for the year 1959-60. The Province of Quebec permitted the Federal funds thus far accumulated to remain with the Canadian Universities Foundation until October, 1959. At this time the Premier of Quebec suggested to the Federal Government a solution to the problem. An increase of one percentage point in the rate of provincial corporation income tax with an equal reduction in the Federal corporation income tax would yield an increase in provincial tax that would be used by the province to pay university grants additional to the assistance it had been in the habit of giving to its universities. Two types of Federal aid thus were made available, the provinces could choose either that suggested by Quebec returning to the Federal Government any funds in excess of \$1.50 per capita collected under this method. The alternative was to receive \$1.50 per capita within the Province and divided according to the population of each university.

TABLE XV

COMPOSITION OF UNIVERSITY REVENUES²¹

Year	Federal Government	Provincial Government	Tuition fees	Other Sources
1950-51	46	41	35	20
1957-58	20	31	30	19

²¹Sheffield, p. 9.

Canadian universities usually spend two-thirds of their ordinary income on direct instructional costs. Between 1950-51 and 1959-60 the median salary of Canadian University teachers had almost doubled, rising from about \$4,000 to just under \$8,000 per year. In the period in which Quebec universities did not accept grants whereas other universities were accepting them, teachers' salaries lagged behind those of other parts of the country, tuition fees were higher, and nevertheless the universities of Quebec suffered crippling deficits. In 1959-60 the average amount granted per student was \$271 but ranged from \$203 to \$635 dependent upon population of the province and the number of students enrolled in universities of the province. In nine years Federal university grants had added \$112,500,000 to the revenues of Canadian universities. Legislative authority for the grants is contained in the annual appropriation acts.

6. Educational Benefits to Veterans and Their Dependents²²

Under the Veterans Rehabilitation Act, Revised Statutes of Canada, Chapter 27, 1952-53, for World War II veterans, secondly under the Veterans Benefit Act, Revised Statutes of Canada, Chapter 65, 1954, for Korean campaign veterans, and thirdly the Pensioners Training Regulations training activities have declined to the point where it is recorded for the year 1958-59 in a consolidated report. There were forty-three applications approved for benefits under these Acts during the year and fifty discontinuations of benefits. There were sixty-nine people at the end of the year involved in the program. There were twenty-one

²²Canada Department of Veterans Affairs, Annual Report for the Fiscal Year 1958-59 (Ottawa, 1959), pp. 1-120; Canada Department of Veterans Affairs, Veterans Rehabilitation Act (Ottawa, 1959), pp. 1-10; Canada Department of Veterans Affairs, Veterans Benefit Act, 1954 (Ottawa, 1955), pp. 1-11.

active cases of vocational training and sixty-nine of university training including five in post-graduate programs of whom four were studying in institutions located outside of Canada in 1959.

There is an allowance paid during vocational or technical training where a veteran takes a course of this type which has been approved by the Minister as likely to train the veteran for employment or reemployment or to enable him to obtain better employment. However, no allowance can be paid under this stipulation unless the veteran makes application for it within twelve months after the date of termination of the War or of his discharge whichever is the later date. No allowance is paid to a veteran for a total period of more than twelve months except in special cases where the allowance may be paid for a period not exceeding the period of service of the veteran. There may be cases where the veteran was a patient in or was receiving treatment from some health institution in which case the period is extended during which he can make application for the said amount of time. Allowances may be received where the veteran is an undergraduate and resumes or commences within fifteen months after discharge a course for the purpose of qualifying for admission to a university or for admission to any academic or professional university course. Total expenditures for training through fiscal year 1958-59 was \$194,896,444.

The total period for which an allowance may be paid to a veteran, except in special cases, shall not exceed his period of service. Special cases are such as those in which the achievement of the veteran is so outstanding that the common good and the interest of the veteran would be best served by allowing him to continue. Any veteran failing in one or more classes who fails in one or more of the supplementary examinations next offered by the university in any of

such classes or subjects will have the allowance discontinued.

TABLE XVI
EXPENDITURE FOR TRAINING
VETERANS REHABILITATION ACT ²³
1954-55 to 1958-59

Program	To 1954-55	1955-56	1956-57	1957-58	1958-59
Vocational allowances	\$46,860,173	\$72,353	\$36,193	\$13,197	\$3,552
Tuition and fees	6,229,930	91,642	79,872	56,428	52,836
University allowances	90,237,604	138,798	87,108	61,414	44,227
Tuition and fees	32,850,273	48,531	35,566	21,505	34,694
Supplementary grants	17,840,548	--	--	--	--
Totals	\$194,018,528	\$351,324	\$238,739	\$152,544	\$135,309

There is an act to provide assistance for the higher education of children of certain deceased members of the Armed Forces. This act is cited as the Children of War Dead (Education Assistance) Act, Chapter 27 of the Revised Statutes of Canada, 1952-53. In accordance with this Act the Minister may make allowances for students to enable them to continue their education beyond secondary school graduation and to pay in whole or in part the cost of this. A monthly allowance of \$25 and an additional \$35 after the age of twenty-one is paid during the period in which the student pursues a full time course of study.

²³ Annual Report for Veterans Affairs, 1958-59, p. 60

The total period for which an allowance may be paid under this Act may not exceed four academic years. No allowance can be paid to students over twenty-five years of age except that which will enable him to complete the academic year of training when he reaches that age. The student must enter the institution of higher education within fifteen months after having completed his secondary education.

Students who have failed in one or more class subjects in any academic year and fails in more than one of the supplementary examinations next offered by the educational institution in these classes does not receive the allowance or costs being made. The educational institution is reimbursed any of the costs of the course necessary to the student's education. The volume of training under this Act has continued to be greater than was originally estimated. At March 31, 1959, approved cases totalled 1,406 of whom 683 were male and 723 female. Approvals during the year amounted to 300 cases.

TABLE XVII

TRAINING THE CHILDREN OF WAR DEAD²⁴
 JULY 1, 1953 - MARCH 31, 1959

Completed	366
Deferred	143
Suspended	5
Discontinued	313
In Training	579
Total	<u>1,406</u>

²⁴Ibid.

7. National Research Council²⁵

The National Research Council organized in 1916 is a corporate body not a Department of Government. It is one of the first examples of a Crown Corporation. This Council has considerable number of powers which are not held by Government departments. The Council is outside the Civil Service, and possesses a governing body of independent non-government scientists. It can earn revenue and spend it along with other powers it holds. These powers have always been used with discretion but are essential for the operation of a scientific organization with broad responsibilities. The control and selection of the staff is in the hands of the Advisory Council which is a group of the most distinguished non-government scientists in Canada.

The Council feels that their first duty is to encourage science students to continue their post-graduate study in Canadian graduate schools. To promote the development of university science, the Council provided grants to members of university staffs for supplies, equipment, and scholarships to post-graduate research students. The program of aid to research has developed regularly through the years, but in the last few years its expansion has been spectacular. In 1917-18 the first expenditures of the Council amounted to \$14,000. Since then the Council has distributed a total of \$34,000,000 to be used for aid to university research. Some idea of the rapid expansion in recent years can be

²⁵Canada National Research Council, Forty-Second Annual Report, 1958-59, Publication N.R.C. 5250 (Ottawa, 1959), pp. 1-36; Canada National Research Council, Organisation and Activities (Ottawa, 1960), pp. 1-44.

obtained from the fact that approximately half of the total of \$34,000,000 has been spent in the last four years, that \$6,000,000 was spent in 1958-59, and \$8,200,000 was spent the following year. There is no question that the Council has had an important influence in stimulating the development of science in Canadian universities.

The second major function of the National Research Council is the operation of laboratories. These form the largest industrial research laboratories in Canada. The general organization is very complex and very much decentralized. In Canada and most other countries over ninety-five percent of all industries are so small that it is not practicable for them to operate their own research laboratories. This problem is only solved by some form of public support. A network of Research Councils has been built up over Canada through the years. Starting with the National Research Council in 1916 it now extends to more than half the provinces. These councils have followed the tradition of having much more freedom of action than a normal government department and they have constituted a considerable Canadian achievement.

University support provided is of two types. Direct support consists of research and travel grants for university staff members and post graduate scholarships for students. Indirect support consists of contributions, grants, and subsidies to Canadian and international scientific organizations, the publication of Canadian Journals of Research, and the administrative expenses of the program. In 1958-59 the budget for direct support provided eighty-two per cent of its funds for approximately seven hundred research grants of various types and amounts to members of university staffs. The remaining eighteen per cent provided for post-graduate scholarships awarded to more than four hundred

students with an additional large number of students receiving various degrees of remuneration from research grants to members of university staffs. The 1958-59 budget for indirect support was \$700,000 of which thirty-eight per cent was for contributions and grants, thirty-seven per cent for the publication of the research journals, and twenty-five per cent for the administrative costs of the program.

The National Research Council consists of the following divisions:

Division of Applied Biology; Atlantic Regional Laboratory that studies local agricultural and manufacturing problems with offices at Halifax, N.S.; Prairie Regional Laboratory at Saskatoon, Saskatchewan that studies local agricultural and industrial problems; Division of Applied Chemistry; Division of Pure Chemistry; Division of Applied Physics; Division of Pure Physics; Division of Medical Research; The Division of Building Research; Division of Mechanical Engineering that contains the National Aeronautical Establishment; Radio and Electrical Engineering Division; and the Division of Administration and Awards consisting of General Counsel and patents, plant engineering, information, and awards and committee services. Legislative authority for the National Research Council is contained in the Research Council Act, Chapter 239, Revised Statutes of Canada, 1952, as amended.

TABLE XVIII
 NATIONAL RESEARCH COUNCIL
 FINANCIAL STATEMENT FOR THE YEAR 1958-59²⁶

Receipts

Parliamentary Appropriations		
Operations of Laboratories	\$22,589,686.30	
Capital	2,815,957.64	
	\$25,405,643.94	
Special Funds		
On hand 1, April, 1958		
Cash Unallotted	\$1,228,474.27	
Warehouse & Asect.	317,000.00	
		1,545,474.27
		:
Laboratory Services	497,376.88	
Sale of Publications	80,496.11	
Rental of Housing	11,131.73	
		589,004.72
Less:		
Adjustment of accounts, etc.	127.01	
		588,877.71
Contrib. from Other Gov't Depts	<u>2,084,361.00</u>	
		<u>4,218,712.98</u>
Total Receipts		\$29,624,356.92

²⁶Canada N.R.C. Annual Report, 1958-59, p. 23.

TABLE XIX

NATIONAL RESEARCH COUNCIL
FINANCIAL STATEMENT FOR THE YEAR 1958-59²⁷

Expenditures

Salaries	\$13,964,553.07	
Less Salaries of Service Staff	555,839.48	\$13,408,713.59
Allowances		48,990.63
Professional and Special Services		389,133.07
Travelling and Removal Expenses		346,662.71
Freight, Express and Cartage		56,866.16
Postage		22,175.06
Telephone and Telegrams		27,311.19
Printing of Annual Report, Journals, etc.		307,110.60
Office Stationery, Supplies, and Equipment		342,338.84
Library Books and Periodicals		97,586.70
Materials and Supplies		1,247,944.53
Expendable Research Equipment		1,415,407.54
Repairs and Upkeep of Bldgs. and Works		282,691.99
Repairs and Upkeep of Equipment		390,798.28
Municipal or Public Utility Services		332,935.81
Scholarships		1,232,527.11
Grants in Aid of Research and Grant to the Royal Society of Canada		4,880,767.69
Sundries and Contingencies		144,085.80
Fire Research Building		309,051.20
Communications Building and Equipment		133,060.00
National Aeronautical Establishment High Speed Tunnel		636,859.87
Geophysical Station and Auxiliary Services		34,413.03
Upper Air Research Field Station and Bldgs.		13,005.81
Applied Physics Building and Equipment		89,792.19
Alterations and Extensions		1,421,335.01
Acquisition of Equipment		178,440.53
 Total Expenditures		 \$27,790,004.94
Balances on Hand, March 31, 1959 Cash Unallotted	1,517,351.98	
Warehouse and Acct's.	317,000.00	
		1,834,351.98
Reconciliation to Receipts		\$29,624,356.92

²⁷Ibid., pp. 23-24

8. The Canada Council²⁸

The Canada Council was established March 28, 1957 for the encouragement of the arts, humanities, and social sciences. The purpose was to foster and promote the study and creation of work in the arts, humanities, and social sciences. The Council assists and cooperates with other organizations following the same objectives. It provides through various organizations for grants, loans, and scholarships in the aforementioned fields for study or research. This study may take place in Canada by native citizens of the country or other nationals who want to pursue these field in Canada. The Council makes awards to persons in Canada for outstanding achievements in the arts, humanities, or social sciences. It sponsors exhibitions, performances, or publications of works in these fields. Exchange programs with other countries or organizations are carried on respecting these areas, and through the Council arrangement is made for representation and interpretation of Canadian arts, humanities, and social sciences in other countries.

The Canada Council has been allocated funds totaling \$100,000,000 by the Parliament of Canada. The University Capital Grants Fund is \$50,000,000 of this. The interest and the capital have been earmarked to be spent over a period of ten years to help pay for additional needed space in university buildings. There is a growing need for university graduates and Parliament has stated that grants from this fund are to be made on a basis proportionate to the population in each Province and that they are to be matched on a dollar for dollar basis

²⁸Canada Council, The, Second Annual Report to March 31, 1959 (Ottawa, 1959), pp. 1-112; Canada Council, The, Opening Proceedings (Ottawa, 1957), pp. 2-30.

raised by the universities themselves. The Council has the responsibility of implementing this program for all of Canada.

The other \$50,000,000 is in the endowment fund from which only the revenue is allowed to be spent, and the investment of \$50,000,000 is presumed to bring in something over \$2,000,000 a year. The Council consists of seventeen men and four women representing every Province in Canada. None of the members are specialists for the most part. However, they are generally recognized as being persons of broad interests and wide experience.

It seems that it was not the intention of the Massey Commission or of Parliament that the phrase "the humanities" should be interpreted narrowly in the meaning of "classical studies." Rather, it should include all the broadly cultural subjects covered in a university curriculum, not only the classics but also history, philosophy, literature, rhetoric, mathematics, and languages. Further, the "social sciences" may be understood to include what is involved in human relationships and to include economics, psychology, sociology, political science, geography, and law. It is the job of the Council to interpret the three areas together, that of arts, humanities, and social sciences so as to give effect to the Royal Commission's report and to the intention of Parliament.

The Canada Council represents a new concept in that it is a statutory operation originated by government. The Council is not an agent of Her Majesty and the members and employees and the Director and Associate Director of the Council are not part of the public service except as they are considered to be employed in the public service for the purposes of the Public Service Superannuation Act.

The Canada Council has a small staff, not more than about fifteen all told

so that it may avoid the faults of bureaucracy. Specialist advice is taken from advisory committees and panels chosen from those who are engaged in the various fields of its activities. This is the beginning of typical Canadian venture pushing back another frontier.

TABLE XX

ANTICIPATED EXPENDITURES OF THE CANADA COUNCIL ²⁹
1959-60

Music	\$315,000
Theatre	150,000
Ballet	120,000
Festivals	150,000
Opera	50,000
Visual Arts	125,000
Publications	50,000
Others	10,000
Total	<u>\$1,000,000</u>

9. Education for Citizenship³⁰

The Canadian Citizenship Branch assists in the establishment and activities of various local committees which seek to coordinate the work of volunteer organizations in this field. A wide variety of materials and information is provided on request to teachers and other community leaders preparing talks on citizenship and devising courses of study. There were 85,000 Discussion Guides and other program materials distributed in 1958-59. Approximately 55,000 booklets in English and 4,500 in French of the Canadian Citizenship Series were requested by organized study groups and immigrants in this same year. The

²⁹Canada Council Second Annual Report to March 31, 1959, p. 4

³⁰Canada Department of Citizenship and Immigration, Annual Report for the Fiscal Year Ended March 31, 1959, (Ottawa, 1959), pp. 10-13.

National Film Board on behalf of the Branch prepared a film, The Threshold to acquaint newcomers with the problems of Canadian schools.

There were 88,000 copies of the Handbook for Newcomers printed in French, English, German, Dutch, and Hungarian and distributed by request. A program for assistance for Hungarian refugee students has been completed with the help of the Branch and is carried on by the National Conference of Canadian Universities. Agreements with the Federal Government made by the various provinces in respect to the teaching cost of citizenship and language classes for newcomers amounted to \$248,000 in matching grants. This shows a three per cent increase over the previous fiscal year of 1957-58. Also supplied by the Branch on request were 240,000 free textbooks for classes in English and 19,000 for classes in French during the fiscal year 1958-59.

Promotion of instruction facilities for special groups such as day classes for immigrants expecting placement, shift workers, hospital patients, and housewives unable to attend the regular evening classes was an important part of the Branch program. Encouragement and assistance is given to the training of instructors of newcomers and methods of adult language teaching. The University of Alberta and the Ontario Department of Education arranged six week summer courses for training of instructors in citizenship. The Saskatchewan Department of Education was helped to set up a language laboratory to be used for the instruction of immigrants. Legislative authority is contained in the Department of Citizenship and Immigration Act, Chapter 67 of the Revised Statutes of Canada, 1952.

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

A. Task Force Report on Education to President Kennedy¹

Three major legislative proposals were made by a Task Force Committee on Education on January 6, 1961. In addition to this, four administrative actions were submitted as recommendations to the President. The first major legislative proposal concerned Federal support for the public schools. Consideration for the national interest requires every child to have a first-rate education. Therefore first priority should be given to a program for the further development of our schools the task force recommended.

Their recommendation took cognizance of the fact that state and local governments cannot by themselves raise the funds needed for the implementation of this program. Therefore aid should be given in three related areas, for general support to all public schools to reach a new level, secondly a program for states having particular difficulty, and lastly a special program for city schools.

In carrying out the aid to all public schools the Task Force Committee recommended that thirty dollars per annum per pupil based on daily attendance

¹U. S. House of Representatives, Eighty-Seventh Congress, First Session, Committee on Education and Labor, Report on Education Submitted to President-Elect Kennedy by a Task Force Committee on Education (Washington, 1961), pp. 1-4.

should be provided by the Federal Government. It is estimated the annual cost would be \$1,200,000,000 which would be sent to the states for transmission to local boards of education. These funds could be used for salaries, construction, or other educational needs.

Secondly, this Committee recommended that legislation providing twenty dollars per child be provided for states with personal income per student in average daily attendance in public schools below seventy per cent of the national average. State and local effort are always to be encouraged, and it is believed that approximately one-fourth of the states would benefit from this legislation. About seven million children mostly in the South would be aided, and the annual cost would be \$140,000,000. These funds would be used toward construction, salaries, or any other educational improvements needed.

Thirdly, the Task Force recommended that twenty dollars per child in average daily attendance be provided to the public schools in great cities of over 300,000 population. Many of these cities are faced with serious problems. Grants would be made to these cities if they were to submit plans showing their need and proposed improvements. Funds amounting to \$120,000,000 annually would be used for research and experiment, for construction, for purchase of sites, for using the school for community improvement, and for improvements of guidance and job placement for students beyond sixteen years of age.

The second major legislative proposal supports a program for housing and academic facilities for colleges and universities. Enrollment in colleges and universities although having reached a peak will increase even more in the near future. A million new students will have to be provided for in the next five years. The Committee suggests that at least \$500,000,000 be given for the first

year to meet the need for increased facilities. Seventy per cent of this should be used for matching grants and thirty per cent used for loans for college housing. They recommend that these grants should be used only to provide increased housing.

Secondly, a college housing loan program has been successful in the last ten years of its operation, and the Committee recommends that additional funds be granted this program to enable colleges and universities to plan ahead. It therefore recommends that "the President ask Congress for an immediate increase in loan authorization of \$150,000,000 to take care of anticipated additional needs for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1961, and (b) the President ask Congress to increase the loan authorization by \$1,400,000,000 over a four year period, with \$350,000,000 of the new authorization available as of July 1, 1961, and \$350,000,000 on July 1, 1962, July 1, 1963, and July 1, 1964."² The present college housing loan program is administered by the Housing and Home Finance Agency.

The third major legislative proposal calls for strengthening of the National Defense Education Act. The Committee recommends that the authority should be extended for five years. Various programs under this Act are of supreme importance. The national fellowship program should be enlarged to gain a greater supply of teachers at all levels of education. Loan funds for college students need to be increased and the loan program implemented with a guarantee for private funds.

Federal aid should be given to divers experimental programs in means of

²Ibid., p. 2.

communication in education. Education television networks should receive Federal aid the Committee suggested. There has been three years of aid granted to the states for guidance purposes, and these programs should be thoroughly evaluated now with a view toward planning for the future. We gain in national strength as we strengthen our provisions for special services in education.

There are four important administrative actions which the Task Force Committee recommends for immediate action by the President. The first recommendation states that the President should immediately establish a President's Advisory Committee on Education. This move on the part of the President will place education on the same strata as is occupied by science and economics.

The second recommendation the Task Force makes for Presidential action is the immediate implementation of the President's Science Advisory Committee of recommendations in its November 15, 1960 report. This report is called "Scientific Progress, the Universities, and the Federal Government." All Federal agencies including the Federal Council for Science and Technology, the National Science Foundation, the Atomic Energy Commission, the Department of Defense, and the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare which are concerned in this report should immediately take steps toward effective action. Our national industrial and economic growth need the benefits which will accrue from a stronger science and technological program. Institutions of higher learning will welcome help given to them by these recommendations.

The third recommendation made for administrative action recommends that the Internal Revenue Service liberalize the income tax Ruling 60-370, dated December 2, 1960. This will give a boost to private donations to educational institutions.

The Task Force Committee recommends a fourth action to be taken by the President in regard to revision of Bureau of the Budget Circular A-21, issued September 10, 1958. This document seeks "to provide to educational institutions recognition of their full allocated costs of research under generally accepted cost accounting principles." The purpose of this is to facilitate the ease with which transactions between the Government and the various universities are carried out.

B. Catholic Viewpoint on Government Aid to Nonpublic Education

Neil G. McCluskey, S.J., in his book Catholic Viewpoint on Education,³ brings out the point that there is a great deal of unreasoning emotion connected with the issues crystalized by the slogan "wall of separation." He points out that the term "wall" is unfortunate because it is impossible to separate completely two institutions such as the church and state which have the same objectives, that is the realization of the common good. Father McCluskey says that this concept of the wall of separation has become an equally ambiguous phrase with the phrase "the American way of life."

He shows us how commentators on constitutional history agree on the reasons for an almost complete silence concerning religion in the Constitution. He tells us of James Madison who proposed the First Amendment and when questioned as to why such an amendment was needed stated that, "He believed that the people feared one sect might obtain a preeminence, or two combine together, and

³Neil G. McCluskey, S.J., Catholic Viewpoint on Education (New York, 1959), pp. 139-165.

establish a religion to which they would compel others to conform."⁴ Judge Joseph Story, credited as being the first significant interpreter of the Constitution, said that every American colony up to the time of the Revolution with the possible exception of Rhode Island supported in some form the Christian religion. Therefore, it is strange to assume that the states intended to adopt a position of hostility or indifference toward religion. However, in the United States Supreme Court decision in the Everson Case of 1947 it was stated that "establishment" meant at least this: "Neither a State nor the Federal Government can set up a church. Neither can pass laws which aid one religion, aid all religions or prefer one religion over another." There have been writings by Jefferson and Madison which have been taken to substantiate the historical basis for the Everson decision. On the contrary, at other times they did speak to the effect that friendly cooperation between the church and state were desirable. An overwhelming majority of the people in 1788 would have been appalled to learn that the new Constitution forbade the Federal Government from assuming a benign attitude toward religion. Justice Story states that "An attempt to level all religions, and to make it a matter of state policy to hold all in utter indifference would have created a universal disapprobation, if not universal indignation."

The crux of the matter lays in the fact that it is not a matter of religious prohibitions of the Constitution being absolute but rather in regard

⁴Ibid., p. 142, citing Annals of Congress, I, 730.

to what areas are they absolute. It may be said that the First Amendment prohibition is absolute in terms of all measures which respect an establishment of religion and which prohibit the free exercise of it. Neil G. McCluskey, S.J. continues that the separation of church and state is one thing, but for the state to try to keep religion from its citizens is another. The American Government has shown the importance of religion as a beneficent influence in the life of its citizenry by the tax exemption of educational, literacy, and charitable institutions under church sponsorship.

Absolute separation of church and state would abrogate the First Amendment by curtailing religious freedom. In trying to preserve religious freedom the Government would become involved through tampering with it. Neil G. McCluskey, S.J., cites an example of the Government providing religious services to the Armed Forces which if this were forbidden would be denying the opportunity for religion to its citizens in the Armed Forces. Catholic parents who cannot send their children to the public schools and at the same time follow the dictates of their conscience are being discriminated against. In this case the schools are not really public because there is a religious qualification attached to attendance therein. The religious qualification being a lack of religion. Therefore these parents are being deprived of the basic benefit of free education and in most states the greater part of the supplementary benefits given to the school child.

Father McCluskey concludes this discussion pointing out that Justice Jackson although entering a separate dissenting opinion in the Everson case stated that if the resolution of the school board in the Everson case had been "for the protection of the safety, health or morals of youngsters it would not

merely have been constitutional to grant it. It would have been unconstitutional to refuse it to any child merely because he was a Catholic." Therefore, the pivotal question which must be faced by the courts squarely is not whether giving auxiliary services to nonpublic school pupils is constitutional but rather whether basically are we not required to extend aid to all children under the "equal protection of the laws" phrase of the Federal Constitution. It is discrimination against these children not to extend Federal aid to all.

C. Consideration of and Recommendations for Federal Support of Education

1. Factors Common to Both Public and Nonpublic Education

A study has been made of the role of the Federal Government in education and of the considerable sums of money which have been allocated in the past to educational activities and which are being increasingly made to education. It must be made clear that there is no one view as to the optimum amount and manner of distribution of Federal aid. There is no one simple plan or solution to the problem of Federal aid, however the need for Federal aid is well enough established that argument pro and con Federal aid per se is redundant. It was seen in the presidential election of 1960 that both major parties favored Federal aid, the only argument being as to plans for implementation of the program. This does not, however, mean that we can become complacent about the form that Federal aid has assumed in the past or the present. Before solutions can be recommended we must examine a few of the difficulties which confront us.

Unfortunately there is little coordination of the Government activities in education. Maximum efficiency is not attained because the various programs of the National Government have grown up as the result of some specific need in an

educational area. Even the National Defense Education Act which is a vacant attempt to fill several specific needs in our educational program is a collection of separate activities rather than a coordinated whole.

An examination of the Canadian Government's activities in education shows that a simple method may be formulated for Federal aid to educational institutions. Note with what ease the Canadian Universities Foundation organizes the distribution of funds to universities. Canada appropriates \$1.50 for each person in the provinces to be distributed to the universities within the province according to the number of students enrolled in each university. Each Canadian university uses the grant received in the manner most conducive to its welfare. In the United States grants are made for various specific needs as they arise. This results in a lack of coordination and efficiency and actually in greater Federal control over education. This greater Federal control arises from the fact that funds must be used for the specific causes only and in a manner prescribed by the Federal Government. Canada zealously guards its provincial rights over education.

It may be observed that Canada has an organized plan to promote the arts, humanities, and social sciences through the Canada Council. This organization in addition to having funds through interest earned on a Federal grant of \$50,000,000, also seeks out private tax exempt donations. This replaces some of the work of the 7,300 foundations found in the United States. It is not to assume a critical attitude toward the work of foundations in the United States that this point is made. It is rather to emphasize the fact that if we are able to solve the complex problems of decision and operation involved in Federal aid to education, we must have constant communication and techniques of

organization to coordinate and interpret educational plans and policies.

In Canada Federal aid is given to private organizations that serve the same purposes as public education. This may be observed in the National Research Council, the Canada Council, and the Canadian Citizenship Branch of the Department of Citizenship and Immigration. There is a very limited amount of this type of aid to private organizations in the United States. It would seem reasonable that if an organization is carrying on work successfully in a field which is beneficial to the public welfare, it would be expedient to facilitate the work of the organization by means of Federal support. Rather than begin a new organization to serve the same purpose with the difficulties attendant upon the formation of a new enterprise in addition to government involvement in many unrelated activities, it would seem best to encourage and assist these programs.

Canada has consolidated its research study under the National Research Council whereas in the United States there are separate research departments associated with various branches of our government. It would seem wise to consider a revision of these decentralized research activities to avoid possible duplication of effort and thus effect an economy of time, talent, and funds.

In line with the centralization of activities relating to the same area, foreign and domestic exchange programs should be operated from the Office of Education where are found specialists in education. At present these programs are carried on in the Department of State with some cooperation from the Office of Education. Further study of the operation of foreign exchange programs should bring to light better methods of allotting funds to this activity. In its present state a complex method of finance exists ranging from the sale of

surplus property and with foreign currencies, from war loan funds, from interest on money loaned to purchase United States commodities, from foreign currencies held by the United States Government, and from the sale of agricultural commodities abroad all used in foreign exchange programs.

Immigrants to the United States who are to be our future citizens have a limited program of assistance. Funds amounting to \$37,827 are spent on integrating them into our American culture which sum seems woefully deficient. If the United States is to be a strong, unified country these new citizens should be given better facilities and greater opportunities to study our American culture and traditions. Federal aid to adults who are seeking to improve themselves whether native born or naturalized citizens should be made available on an elementary and secondary school level.

In terms of integration, a problem with which education is concerned at present, it is seen that sixteen states have land-grant colleges with separate schools for negroes and for white students. It would seem that the Federal Government having set the policy of integration would carry through by integrating its land-grant colleges. This is not to say that the land-grant colleges are the property of the Federal Government, but its influence may be brought to bear in the direction of integration.

Federal financial aid is going to be the center of much controversy and change in the next few years. It is apparent that a good program of Federal aid cannot be adequately implemented by merely adding to the present activities and by asking more from the sources that support the program at present. Needs must be identified, and the public must be aware of purposes and underlying philosophies. Federal aid should be planned over a long period of time so that

programs and budgets of local, county, and state school districts, so that foundation and research educational programs may be realized successfully.

2. Rationale of Federal Support to Nonpublic Education

Federal aid to nonpublic schools has been withheld in many instances on religious grounds. However, to prohibit Federal aid to religious schools is actually a negation of the freedom of religion. Students attending parochial schools who are contributing to the welfare of the state in terms of taxation paid and other contributions they and their families make as citizens should not be penalized because of their religion. There is the precedent of aid to students in religious schools which has been given for the school lunch program, bus transportation, scholarships, and fellowships. To be consistent one should expect aid to be given the student as part of the future security of these United States. The country's citizens are its chief resources. To give Federal support to public schools and to withhold it from nonpublic schools is to handicap, to play havoc with the nation's greatest resource.

Families which send their children to nonpublic schools carry much of the burden of taxation and therefore have the right to receive benefits from this taxation. If the principle of child welfare is accepted, it can logically conclude only with helping the child as much as the government is able. Students who receive scholarships from state and federal governmental sources are allowed to attend schools of their own choice, often religious schools. This may occur in a state where direct aid to a religious school would be unconstitutional. Since scholarship aid to students is constitutional in higher education, it should be legal at all levels of education. Direct scholarship aid to students for public or private education at the elementary, secondary,

and higher education levels should be encouraged.

Under the NDEA, Title V-B, universities are reimbursed for guidance and counseling institutes. Teachers from public schools are given \$75.00 a week allowance plus \$15.00 a week for each dependent. Teachers from private schools are given no personal allowance of this type. Title VI of the NDEA offers the same privileges to teachers who wish to study foreign languages. This discrimination against teachers from private schools does not promote the objectives of the Act.

Mgr. William E. McManus, Archdiocesan Superintendent of Schools, in his report to the Catholic School Board on January 12, 1961, pointed out the record breaking enrollment in the Archdiocese of Chicago of 322,117 pupils. Expenses for Catholic grade schools for the current year are expected to exceed \$52,000,000 and for the high schools \$14,000,000 giving a total of \$66,000,000. Chicago taxpayers would have to take care of an additional \$62,500,000 for operating expenses alone if these children were to be transferred to public schools. If all the children now attending Catholic grade and high schools in the Archdiocese were transferred to public schools the additional total cost to the taxpayers would be over \$127,500,000 for operating expenses and \$275,000,000 for new classrooms giving a total of \$402,500,000. Federal aid to nonpublic schools in the United States is an issue which must be resolved in terms of the welfare of all of the nation's children without discrimination or prejudice.

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APPENDIX

QUESTIONNAIRE USED IN INTERVIEWS

WITH CANADIAN AUTHORITIES ON FEDERAL AID

1. How does your organization view Federal aid?
2. What are the advantages and disadvantages of Federal aid?
3. What have you published on Federal aid?
4. What other publications are available on Federal aid?
5. What are schools getting now in Federal aid?
6. From what sources of tax revenue is Federal aid given?
7. How is Federal aid apportioned out?
8. What qualifications are required to receive Federal aid?
9. What subjects are emphasized in Federal aid?
10. Is Federal aid distributed without special requests being made for it?
11. How do private schools fare in Federal aid?
12. What department is in charge of Federal aid?
13. Is there anything of particular significance in the history of Federal aid in relation to the present program?
14. What are your suggestions for Federal aid?

INTERVIEW WITH MR. COLLINS REPRESENTING
THE CANADIAN EDUCATION ASSOCIATION
TORONTO, ONTARIO

Mr. Collins stated in the interview held with him that the Canadian Education Association preferred to avoid the question of Federal aid. He felt that this was a controversial question since many provinces are opposed to this type of support. Therefore he preferred not to discuss the question of advantages and disadvantages of Federal aid. In view of these facts, the Canadian Education Association has not published any materials concerning Federal aid. However, he spoke of a publication by the Canadian School Trustees' Association entitled School Finance in Canada, 1955, compiled by Dr. M. E. LaZerte in which Federal aid is shown to be a favorable source of school revenue. Mr. Collins said that this opinion should be viewed with caution since this is not the accepted consensus of opinion in Canada.

Mr. Collins reviewed the programs in which Federal aid is given to schools. He stated that each program has its own unique method of obtaining revenue and for the disbursement of funds. With regard to qualifications to receive Federal funds, often an agreement must be reached between the provinces and the Dominion Government. This is the case when the Dominion Government provides services or gives support to education other than Indian education, education in the territories, and education in certain programs of the Department of National Defense.

It was pointed out that in some instances religious education is the only education available. In these provinces as well as all the provinces Federal aid is given to both religious and public schools. School support in Canada is provided by the provinces and the Dominion Government does not have a department that has any control concerning education. The Canadian Education Association makes no suggestions in the matter of Federal aid since they take no position in this matter.

INTERVIEW WITH DR. WHITWORTH AND MR. LE SEELEURS

BUREAU OF STATISTICS

OTTAWA, ONTARIO

At the interview held on August 24, 1960, the following facts were discussed:

1. There are two principal sources of Federal aid in Canada, one of these is from the Department of Labour. It supports technological training in the secondary schools. A second source is the Canada Council which gives scholarships to students through the provinces. The Department of Labour extends aid on a matching basis with the provinces. The provinces enter into a contract with the Department of Labour. Quebec Province has refused to enter into this contract. Each province is independent and can do as it sees fit to do. The Province of Quebec has elected a new government. It is expected that this new administration will enter into a contract with the Dominion Government this year. It may be said generally that provinces that need Federal aid are also in favor of Federal aid.

2. Another factor brought out is that some provinces enter into agreements with the Dominion Government whereby the Dominion Government collects the income tax and returns the provinces portion for Federal aid in such manner as not to be objectionable to the province.

3. There is no book written on Canadian school finance nor on Canadian school law that lists Dominion activities and responsibilities. Each province has its own educational system, and each province has made its own study of the educational system that includes finance and law within the province.

These studies have been made by various Royal Commissions.

INTERVIEW WITH MISS CHANNON
CANADIAN TEACHERS' FEDERATION
OTTAWA, ONTARIO

Miss Channon pointed out that the Canadian Teachers' Federation is in favor of Federal aid for education. She stated that many provinces need the equalization of educational opportunity that comes with Dominion support of education. The Canadian Teachers' Federation has published two pamphlets on this subject. One of these is entitled Federal Aid for Education in Canada and the other is Canadian Teachers' Federation Brief to The Government of Canada. Miss Channon said that the Federation expects to issue other publications favoring Federal aid. Other groups favoring Federal aid are the Canadian School Trustees' Association and many labor unions. An article favoring Federal aid appeared in Canadian Labour, May, 1960.

At this interview held on August 24, 1960, Miss Channon indicated her confidence that Federal aid to education will be increased in Canada. Both the amount of aid and the extent of the programs will be expanded due to the definite need and the desire of citizens to partake in a program of greater educational opportunity through Federal aid to education.

Approval Sheet

The dissertation submitted by Samuel J. Chidekel has been read and approved by five members of the Department of Education.

The final copies have been examined by the director of the dissertation and the signature which appears below verifies the fact that any necessary changes have been incorporated, and that the dissertation is now given final approval with reference to content, form, and mechanical accuracy.

The dissertation is therefore accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Education.

Oct. 17, 1961
Date

Samuel J. Chidekel
Signature of Adviser